

**Idaho** State Summary

2007

# State Teacher Policy Yearbook

Progress on Teacher Quality

## Acknowledgments

### STATES

Our most important partners in this effort have been state education agencies, whose extensive experience has helped to ensure the factual accuracy of the final product. Every state formally received two different drafts of the *Yearbook* for comment and correction, first in spring 2006 and again in December 2006. States also received a final draft of their reports a month prior to release. All but three states graciously responded to our many, many inquiries. While states have not always agreed with our approaches, most have exhibited a remarkable willingness to reflect upon the impact of their current policies—and to acknowledge that the system needs fixing.

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### STAFF

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## About the Yearbook

The *State Teacher Policy Yearbook* examines what is arguably the single most powerful authority over the teaching profession: state government. State authority over the profession—whether through regulation approved by state boards of education or professional standards boards or by laws passed by legislatures—is far reaching. These policies have an impact on who decides to enter teaching, who stays—and everything in between.

The *Yearbook* provides an unprecedented analysis of the full range of each state's teacher policies, measured against a realistic blueprint for reform. It identifies six key areas in urgent need of policy attention, along with specific policy goals within these areas. To develop these goals, three years ago, we began to work with our own nationally respected advisory board, eventually widening the scope to consult with over 150 different policy groups, academics, education think tanks, and national education organizations, some of which have quite different perspectives than ours. The best advice we received came from the states themselves.

The teacher quality goals in this volume all meet four critical benchmarks:

1. They are supported by a strong rationale, grounded in responsible research. (A full list of the citations to support each goal can be found at [www.nctq.org](http://www.nctq.org).)
2. Where applicable, they rely on meaningful inputs shown to improve student achievement and measurable outputs.
3. They are designed to make the teaching profession more responsive to the current labor market
4. They can work in all 50 states.

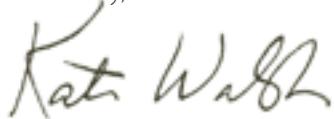
While a national summary report is available, we have customized the *Yearbook* so that each state has its own report, with its own analyses and data. Users can download any one of our 51 state reports (including the District of Columbia) from our website ([www.nctq.org](http://www.nctq.org)). Since some national perspective is always helpful, each state report contains charts and graphs showing how the state performed compared to all other states. We also point to states that offer a "Best Practice" for other states to emulate.

There is no overall grade for a state. Instead, we capture the bird's-eye view of each state's performance through a descriptive term such as "weak but progressing" or "needs major improvement." In order to provide a useful and instantly recognizable standard of performance, we have issued grades to states in each of the six areas. Because there are so many individual goals, we rely on a familiar and useful graphic symbol—circles filled in to various degrees—to reflect progress being made toward meeting these goals. Although somewhat complex, we chose this rating system as the fairest and most easily discernible way to depict the effectiveness of current state educational policies.

Finally, let me emphasize that we view the *Yearbook* as the beginning of a conversation. Not for a moment do we think that the blueprint presented here solves, once and for all, this tricky and complicated business of regulating the teaching profession. But what we have done is put forward a well-informed view of how states might improve, one which we believe is worthy of consideration.

We fully anticipate that the content of the *Yearbook* will evolve from year to year, responding to new information, a lot more feedback, and renewed research.

Sincerely,



Kate Walsh, President



## Executive Summary: Idaho

Welcome to the Idaho edition of the National Council on Teacher Quality's *State Teacher Policy Yearbook*. This analysis is the first of what will be an annual look at the status of state policies impacting the teaching profession. It is our hope that this report will help focus attention on areas where state policymakers could make improvements to benefit both students and teachers.

Our policy evaluation is broken down into six areas that include a total of 27 goals. Broadly, these goals examine the impact of state policy on the preparation, certification, licensure, compensation and effectiveness of teachers across the elementary, secondary and special education spectra. Idaho's progress toward meeting these goals is summarized on the following page.

Overall, Idaho lags behind most other states in implementing teacher-related policy. Idaho completely missed 13 goals, met a small portion of three, partially met eight, nearly met two and fully met only one.

While the state performed weakly in all areas, Idaho has the most work to do in Area 4, "State Approval of Teacher Preparation Programs," and Area 6, "Preparation of Special Education Teachers."

The state should do more to hold teacher preparation programs accountable for the quality of the teachers they are producing, and it should work to ensure that elementary special education candidates receive coursework preparation relevant to the subject matter taught in the classroom.

The body of the report provides a more detailed breakdown of the state's strengths and weaknesses in each area.

## Overall Performance: **Last in Class**

# Executive Summary: How is Idaho Faring?

GRADE

**D**

STATE ANALYSIS

## **AREA 1 – Meeting NCLB Teacher Quality Objectives**

Idaho needs to improve its data policies, which can help it ameliorate inequities in teacher assignments. Its policies for the preparation of elementary teacher candidates need work as well. The state's subject matter preparation policies for future secondary teachers, on the other hand, are unnecessarily extensive. Idaho also needs to phase out its use of HOUSSE routes entirely, although the state does meet the industry standard for a subject matter major.

**D**

## **AREA 2 – Teacher Licensure**

Idaho's professional teaching standards, although focused on student learning standards that teachers must have, do not clearly articulate the knowledge and skills new teachers must have before entering the classroom. The state is moving in the right direction toward ensuring that all new teachers are prepared in scientifically based reading instruction; however, independent researchers have doubts about the strength of the state's reading licensure test. The state allows new teachers up to three years before being required to pass state licensure tests. While the state has signed an interstate reciprocity agreement, it has yet to adequately address the issue of reciprocity for out of state teachers. Idaho does not recognize distinct levels of academic caliber at the time of initial certification.

**D**

## **AREA 3 – Teacher Evaluation and Compensation**

Idaho fails to exercise much-needed leadership in the realm of teacher accountability. Although the state requires annual evaluation, Idaho does not provide the criteria for assessing teachers and thus does not ensure that evaluations are based primarily on evidence of classroom effectiveness. Teacher accountability efforts are furthered hampered by a lack of value-added data and by granting teachers tenure after only three years. While the state does not burden districts with a minimum salary schedule, it also does not promote differential or performance pay.

**F**

## **AREA 4 – State Approval of Teacher Preparation Programs**

Idaho does not require aspiring teachers to demonstrate basic skills before entering a program. It does not hold its programs sufficiently accountable for the quality of their preparation. In addition, Idaho has failed to address the tendency of programs to require excessive amounts of professional coursework. The state also inappropriately requires its programs to meet national accreditation standards.

**D**

## **AREA 5 – Alternate Routes to Certification**

Idaho has an alternate route to certification with a sound structure, but it is compromised by low admissions standards. While Idaho does not allow programs to require excessive coursework, it does not ensure adequate support is provided to new teachers. In addition, the state does not use objective performance data to hold its alternate route programs accountable for the quality of their teachers. Idaho also has a restrictive policy regarding licensure reciprocity for teachers from out of state who were prepared in an alternate route program, making it difficult for some teachers to transfer their licenses.

**F**

## **AREA 6 – Preparation of Special Education Teachers**

Idaho's standards for special education teachers do not adequately prepare them to work with students with disabilities. The state places no limit on the amount of professional education coursework that its teacher preparation programs can require of special education candidates, resulting in program excesses. Idaho does not require elementary special education teachers to take any subject matter courses. The state, however, does require secondary special education teachers to meet the content knowledge and coursework requirements needed for a secondary education endorsement, ensuring that they are likely to finish their preparation highly qualified in at least one area. The state, however, has not developed a streamlined HOUSSE route to help them meet additional subject matter requirements once they are in the classroom.

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 Goals with this icon are especially important for attracting science and mathematics teachers.

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## A Area 1: Goal A – Equitable Distribution of Teachers

The state should contribute to the equitable distribution of quality teachers by means of good reporting and sound policies.

### GOAL COMPONENTS

- ⌚ The state should make the following data publicly available:
  - The percentage of highly qualified teachers, disaggregated both by individual school and by teaching area;
  - The ratio of new teachers (first and second year) to the full teaching staff, disaggregated by individual school, reported for the previous three years;
  - The annual teacher absenteeism rate reported for the previous three years, disaggregated by individual school;
  - The average teacher turnover rate for the previous three years, disaggregated by individual school and school district in the state, and further disaggregated by reasons that teachers leave.
- ⌚ The state should include measurable goals, timelines, or other benchmarks to evaluate the success of strategies aimed at improving the equitable distribution of qualified teachers.

### RATIONALE

- See appendix for detailed rationale.
- States need to report data at the level of the individual school.
- Experience matters a lot at *first*, but quickly fades in importance.
- Sweeping policy changes may be needed.
- Teacher compensation is a critical carrot.

### SUPPORTING RESEARCH

- Research citations to support this goal are available at [www.nctq.org/stpy/citations](http://www.nctq.org/stpy/citations).

Figure 1 Equitable Distribution of Teachers  
*How States are Faring*



# Area 1: Goal A – Idaho Analysis

## State Meets a Small Part of Goal

### **ANALYSIS**

Comprehensive reporting may be the state’s most important role for ensuring the equitable distribution of teachers among schools. Idaho currently collects and publicly reports on some of the data recommended by NCTQ. The state does not collect data on teacher absenteeism, teacher turnover rates, or the ratio of new teachers to the full teaching staff, but it does provide information about the percentage of highly qualified teachers by individual schools.

In its revised Equity Plan submitted to the U.S. Department of Education, Idaho reported on the current distribution of highly qualified teachers, identifying those schools that did not meet the statewide average of .67 percent of core classes NOT taught by highly qualified teachers. The state also reported on the percentage of core classes taught by highly qualified teachers, comparing high-poverty schools with all schools. Although high-poverty schools as a group are not more likely to hire teachers who are not qualified, the state did find an inequitable distribution of highly qualified teachers among particular districts and schools, many of which are located in rural areas. It presents data on the percentage of students who are poor and minority for those schools not meeting the state benchmark for highly qualified teachers.

Although Idaho does not yet report on the proportion of novice teachers by school, the state updated its data collection system in 2006 to collect data related to teachers’ years of experience. Reporting on teachers’ inexperience, especially in proportion to the full teaching staff, will strengthen public reporting on teacher quality, particularly as Idaho seeks to ensure that poor and minority children—as well as those in rural areas—receive their fair share of experienced teachers. When it comes to reporting about staff turnover, the state provided some useful data that includes reasons why teachers leave their jobs, but it does not yet disaggregate these data by school, only by district size.

State initiatives play a limited role in remedying the systemic reasons for inequitable distribution of teachers. Nevertheless, state initiatives signal Idaho’s concern for this issue and have some capacity to seed reform. Idaho has proposed:

- Offering alternate route programs and financial incentives for teachers to teach in rural areas and in the field of special education; and
- Establishing a career ladder program that focuses on the staffing needs of high-need schools.

Idaho’s data collection system provides an effective tool for monitoring schools and districts struggling to close equitable distribution gaps. The system easily identifies teachers who are “misassigned” (i.e., teaching outside of one’s subject area), and the state subsequently withholds state appropriations accordingly. In addition, the state monitors districts closely through its Continuous Improvement Planning process, in which districts document annual progress toward the goal of 100 percent of classes taught by highly qualified teachers. Furthermore, the state’s Highly Qualified Teacher Committee, charged with monitoring the equitable distribution of highly qualified teachers and studying the factors contributing to inequities, also serves the state well in measuring progress toward its goals.

### **SUPPORTING RESEARCH**

<http://www.ed.gov/programs/teacherqual/hqtplans/id.doc>

## RECOMMENDATION

Idaho meets only a small part of this goal. Idaho should consider including data on the percentage of highly qualified teachers at each school on its school report cards, making these data more accessible to the public, and expanding its data collection and reporting efforts to include teacher absenteeism. Although it has taken the initial steps to collect and analyze data on teacher experience and annual turnover rates, the state should go further to analyze the ratio of new hires to full school staff and to disaggregate by school its teacher turnover rates and reasons for leaving. These data will ensure that the state and its school districts have the necessary information available to understand and remedy staff stability and quality. Furthermore, providing comparative data for schools with similar poverty and minority populations would yield an even more comprehensive picture of gaps in equitable distribution.

Idaho should be commended for encouraging districts to hire highly qualified teachers by withholding state funds for teachers who are “misassigned” and by offering both alternate pathways to certification and incentives to teach in high-need schools. The state is also commended for developing overlapping systems for monitoring the effectiveness of its strategies and progress toward its goals.

## IDAHO RESPONSE

Idaho was helpful in providing NCTQ with facts that enhanced our analysis.

**Figure 2 Equitable Distribution**  
*Does IDAHO Publicly Report School-Level Data about Teachers?*<sup>1</sup>

Ratio of novice teachers to full school staff <sup>2</sup>	NO
Percentage highly qualified <sup>3</sup>	YES
Annual turnover rate	NO
Teacher absenteeism rate	NO

<sup>1</sup> States that collect this information but do not publicly report it were not given credit. States that report on these factors only by district were also not given credit.

<sup>2</sup> States reporting at the school level on teachers' average years of experience were not given credit, as this fails to capture what percent of the staff is new and just learning to be a teacher.

<sup>3</sup> States were given credit for reporting publicly at the school level on either the percent of highly qualified teachers or the more preferred percent of classes taught by highly qualified teachers.



**"The majority of my students come from backgrounds of poverty and disadvantage. Unfortunately, at my school the principal and assistant principal are new—their inexperience is coupled with an extremely high teacher turnover rate, making any sort of lasting reform virtually impossible."**

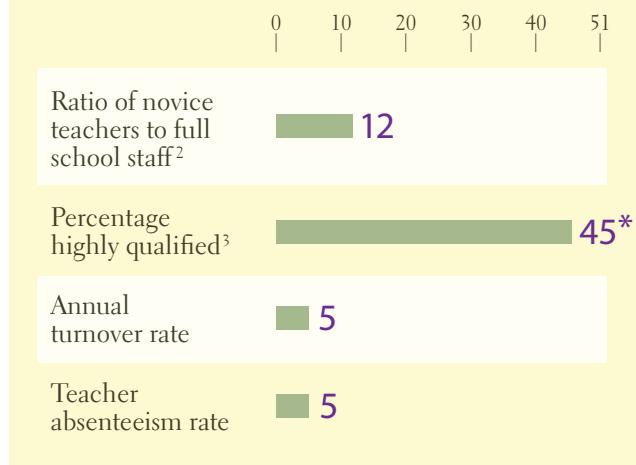
*- Megan Sembera, Teacher*

## BEST PRACTICE

No state has a perfect record when it comes to public reporting of teacher data and well-designed policies to ameliorate inequities in teacher quality, but Connecticut comes close. **Connecticut**'s public reporting is the best among the states. Connecticut publishes information by school on the percent of classes taught by highly qualified teachers, the percentage of inexperienced teachers, teachers' attendance rates and annual turnover rates, although it does not yet collect teachers' reasons for leaving. For all of these indicators, the state provides comparisons with schools that have similar proportions of poor and minority students.

When it comes to the states' Equity Plans, few states have developed strategies aimed specifically at recruiting and retaining qualified teachers in high-needs classrooms. **Ohio** and **Nevada** are exceptions. Both states presented comprehensive Equity Plans that identified the gaps in teacher distribution among poor and minority children and presented targeted strategies for balancing teacher expertise, aligned with measurable benchmarks.

**Figure 3 Equitable Distribution of Teachers**  
*How Many States Publicly Report School-Level Data about Teachers?*<sup>1</sup>



*\* Including **IDAHO**.*

<sup>1</sup> States that collect this information but do not publicly report it were not given credit. States that report on these factors only by district were also not given credit.

<sup>2</sup> States reporting at the school level on teachers' average years of experience were not given credit, as this fails to capture what percent of the staff is new and just learning to be a teacher.

<sup>3</sup> States were given credit for reporting publicly at the school level on either the percent of highly qualified teachers or the more preferred percent of classes taught by highly qualified teachers.

# Area 1: Goal B – Elementary Teacher Preparation

The state should ensure that its teacher preparation programs provide elementary teacher candidates with a broad liberal arts education.

## GOAL COMPONENTS

⑤ The state should require that its approved teacher preparation programs deliver a comprehensive program of study in broad liberal arts coursework. An adequate curriculum is likely to require approximately 42 credit hours to ensure appropriate depth in each of the five core subject areas (science, mathematics, social studies, English and fine arts). An appropriate elementary teacher preparation program should look something like the following:

- 3 credit hours (or standards to justify) of a survey of American literature;
- 3 credit hours (or standards to justify) of a survey of British and/or world literature;
- 3 credit hours (or standards to justify) of the technical aspects of good writing and grammar;
- 6 credit hours (or standards to justify) of general science, covering basic topics in earth science, biology, physics, and chemistry;
- 6 credit hours (or standards to justify) of mathematics covering foundational topics (e.g., fractions), algebra, and geometry;
- 6 credit hours (or standards to justify) of a survey of U.S. history;
- 6 credit hours (or standards to justify) of a survey of world history, including ancient history;
- 3 credit hours (or standards to justify) of world geography;
- 3 credit hours (or standards to justify) of a survey of music appreciation; and
- 3 credit hours (or standards to justify) of a survey of art history.

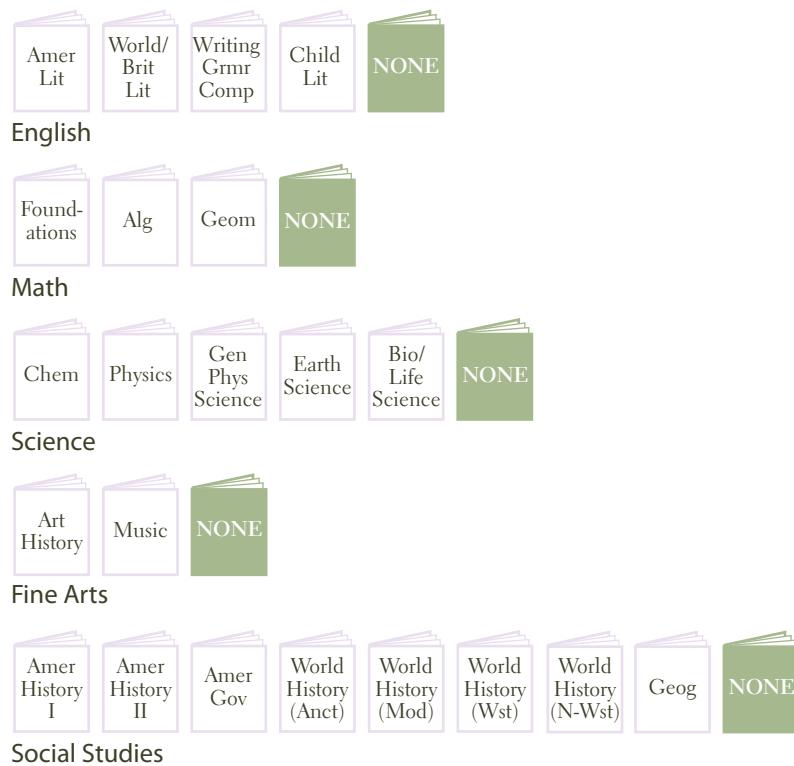
These courses that elementary teacher candidates need in liberal arts content would likely fulfill most institutions' general education requirements, allowing candidates sufficient time to devote to pedagogy coursework, electives, and—if they chose—an additional content specialization.

⑤ This coursework should be directly relevant to the broad subject areas typically taught in the elementary grades and/or delineated in state standards (see “Best Practices” for examples).

Figure 4 Elementary Teacher Preparation  
*How States are Faring*



Figure 5 Elementary Teacher Preparation  
*Is IDAHO Preparing Teachers in the Key Areas of Study?*



- ⌚ Arts and sciences faculty, not education faculty, should teach this coursework.
- ⌚ The state should allow elementary teacher candidates to test out of specific coursework requirements, provided the test that is administered is specific to only one particular subject area.

#### SUPPORTING RESEARCH

- ▶ Research citations to support this goal are available at [www.nctq.org/stpy/citations](http://www.nctq.org/stpy/citations).

#### RATIONALE

- ▶ See appendix for detailed rationale.
- Elementary teachers need coursework that is relevant to the PK through 6 classroom.
- Subject area coursework should be taught by arts and sciences faculty.
- Standards-based programs can work when verified by testing.
- Teacher candidates need to be able to ‘test out’ of coursework requirements.
- Mere alignment with student learning standards is not sufficient.

# Area 1: Goal B – Idaho Analysis

## State Does Not Meet Goal

### **ANALYSIS**

Idaho's subject-matter preparation of elementary teacher candidates needs immediate attention.

NCTQ examined four different ways that Idaho might ensure that elementary teacher candidates would gain adequate subject-matter knowledge across all subject areas:

#### **1. General Education Requirements**

Idaho does not specify any subject-area coursework that all teacher candidates must take.

#### **2. Coursework Requirements for all Elementary Candidates**

Idaho also does not specify any subject-area coursework that elementary teacher candidates must take.

#### **3. Standards for Programs to Apply in Preparing Elementary Candidates**

In lieu of establishing content standards for new teachers, Idaho only requires that teacher preparation programs prepare elementary teacher candidates to teach to the state's elementary student curriculum. While an important expectation for the state to articulate, it is quite hard to monitor or enforce, absent a licensing test that 1) is directly aligned to state student learning standards; and 2) reports teacher performance in each subject area, so that teachers cannot fail a subject area or two and still pass the test.

#### **4. Testing Requirements**

In Idaho, all new elementary teachers must pass a general subject-matter test, the Praxis II. While this test puts the state in technical compliance with NCLB's requirements that all elementary teachers take a test of broad subject matter, this commercial test is aligned with only the more ambiguous state standards. More importantly, it does not report teacher performance in each subject area, meaning that it is possible to pass the test and still fail some subject areas, especially given low state cut scores.

### **SUPPORTING RESEARCH**

<http://www.sde.idaho.gov/certification/documents/SectionXVII.pdf>

## RECOMMENDATION

Idaho does not meet this goal. Idaho should address deficiencies in one of two ways. As Massachusetts has done, it could establish coursework requirements which are both more specifically geared to the areas of knowledge needed by elementary teachers and more comprehensive. Unfortunately, allowing teacher candidates to pick and choose coursework under a somewhat ambiguous requirement that it can be classified as an “English” or “history” course leads to far too many gaps in essential knowledge. Provided Idaho also allowed teacher candidates to test out of core coursework requirements, qualified teacher candidates could pursue other course selections, avoiding having to retake survey courses they may have had in high school.

Alternatively, the state could articulate content standards for new teachers and then administer a licensing test based on these standards, one which reports subscores. California and Oregon both have pursued this option with some success.

As Oklahoma has done, Idaho should specify that elementary teachers’ content coursework must be delivered by faculty from the college of arts and sciences.

## IDAHO RESPONSE

Idaho was helpful in providing NCTQ with the facts necessary for our analysis.

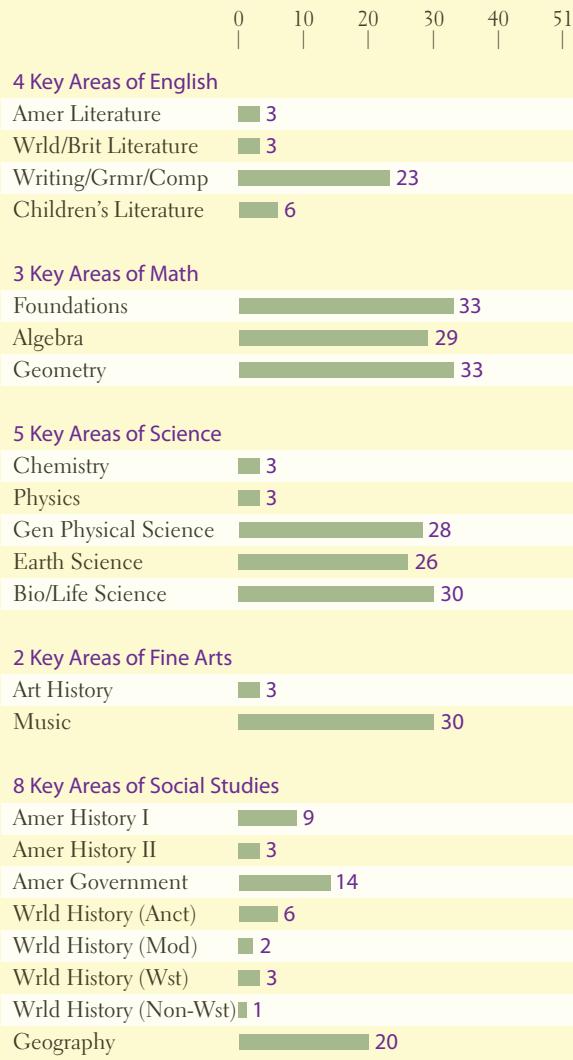
## BEST PRACTICE

Massachusetts requires elementary teacher candidates to complete 36 credit hours of arts and sciences coursework in the following areas:

- Composition;
- American literature;
- World literature, including British literature;
- U.S. history from colonial times to the present;
- World history, including European history, from ancient times to the present;
- Geography;
- Economics;
- U.S. government including founding documents;
- Child development;
- Science laboratory work; and
- Appropriate math and science coursework.

In addition, the **Core Knowledge Foundation** has articulated an excellent list of the subject-matter courses that elementary teacher candidates should complete (<http://www.coreknowledge.org/CK/resrcs/syllabus.htm>).

**Figure 6 Elementary Teacher Preparation**  
*How Many States are Preparing Teachers in the Key Areas of Study?*



# Area 1: Goal C – Secondary Teacher Preparation

The state should require its teacher preparation programs to graduate secondary teachers who are highly qualified.

## GOAL COMPONENTS

- ⌚ Teacher preparation programs should require high school candidates to earn a major in their intended teaching area.
- ⌚ The state should encourage middle school candidates to earn two minors in two core academic areas, preferably over the choice of a single major.
- ⌚ The state should require that new middle school teachers pass a test in every core academic area they intend to teach.
- ⌚ The state should require that new high school teachers pass a subject matter test.

## RATIONALE

- ▶ See appendix for detailed rationale.
- Approved programs should require high school teacher candidates to earn a subject area major in their intended teaching area.
- Approved programs should prepare middle school teacher candidates to be qualified to teach two subject areas.
- Subject area coursework should be taught by arts and sciences faculty.

## SUPPORTING RESEARCH

- ▶ Research citations to support this goal are available at [www.nctq.org/stpy/citations](http://www.nctq.org/stpy/citations).

Figure 7 Secondary Teacher Preparation  
*How States are Faring*



## Area 1: Goal C – Idaho Analysis

### State Nearly Meets Goal

#### **ANALYSIS**

Idaho's subject matter preparation requirements for middle and high school teacher candidates are unnecessarily extensive.

Secondary teacher candidates in Idaho are required to take 30 credit hours in a major teaching field and another 20 credit hours in a minor field. (Alternatively, they may complete 45 or more credit hours in a single subject area.)

All new secondary teachers in Idaho are required to pass a subject matter test, the Praxis II, in order to attain licensure. This policy puts the state in full compliance with NCLB.

#### **SUPPORTING RESEARCH**

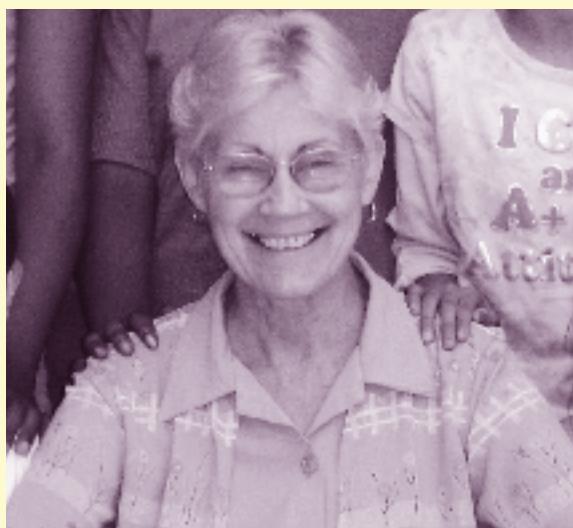
IDAPA 08, Title 02, Chapter 02: Rule 020.02

#### **RECOMMENDATION**

Idaho nearly meets this goal. The state is commended for its commitment to ensuring that its teachers have strong subject matter knowledge, but its two-subject-area requirement exceeds the boundaries and objectives of licensure. Idaho should consider simply requiring that middle school teacher candidates complete either a major or two minors in subject matter coursework, and that high school teacher candidates complete a subject matter major.

#### **IDAHO RESPONSE**

Idaho recognized the factual accuracy of our analysis.



“It’s more than extremely difficult—it’s almost impossible to find teachers who are HQT in two content areas. As a pre-k through grade 8 school, we still only have one homeroom class in each grade of sixth, seventh, and eighth. So sometimes teachers have to teach two content areas, but are only certified in one. And we have to provide support at the school level to that teacher.”

- Sharon VanDyke, *Principal*

### ★ BEST PRACTICE

There are only a few states that meet all of NCTQ’s recommendations for both middle and high school teacher candidates. **Connecticut**, in particular, combines rigor with flexibility, requiring middle school teachers to complete either a subject-matter major or an interdisciplinary major consisting of 24 credit hours in one subject and 15 in another. **Georgia, Louisiana and Mississippi** also require two minors of middle school teacher candidates and a major for high school teacher candidates.

With the advent of NCLB, most states now require a subject-matter major for high school teacher candidates.

Figure 9 Secondary Teacher Preparation  
*Do States Allow Generalists to Teach in  
 Grades 7 and 8?*

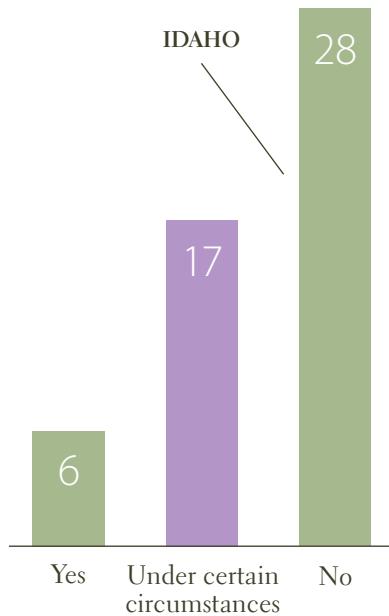
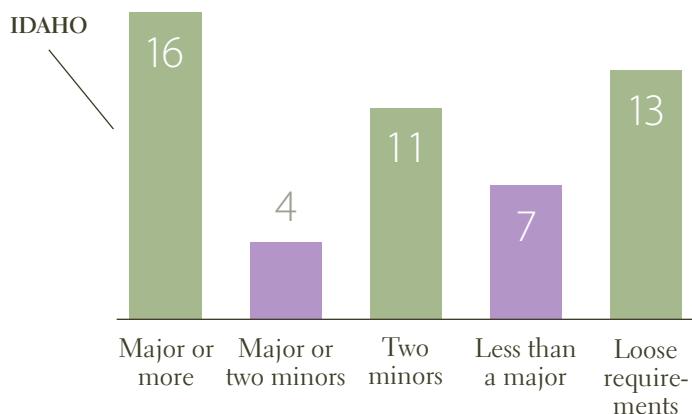


Figure 8 Secondary Teacher Preparation  
*What do States Expect of Middle  
 School Teachers?*



# Area 1: Goal D – Veteran Teachers Path to HQT

For most teachers, the state should phase out its alternative “HOUSSE” route to becoming highly qualified.

## GOAL COMPONENTS

- By the end of the 2007 school year, states should significantly limit veteran teachers’ ability to use their High Objective Uniform State System of Evaluation (HOUSSE) routes to achieve “highly qualified teacher” status.
- States still need to provide a HOUSSE route for a limited number of teachers: rural teachers of multiple subjects (both new and veteran), foreign teachers in the United States on a temporary basis, and secondary special education teachers (both new and veteran).

## RATIONALE

- See appendix for detailed rationale.
- NCLB’s “HOUSSE” route is problematic.
- HOUSSE plans need to be phased out.

## SUPPORTING RESEARCH

- Research citations to support this goal are available at [www.nctq.org/stpy/citations](http://www.nctq.org/stpy/citations).

Figure 10 Veteran Teachers Path to HQT  
*How States are Faring*



## Area 1: Goal D – Idaho Analysis

### State Partly Meets Goal

#### **ANALYSIS**

In a recent report to the U.S. Department of Education, Idaho reported the conclusion of its use of HOUSSE for teachers who were hired prior to the end of the 2005-2006 school year.

Starting with the 2006-2007 school year, Idaho primarily allows the use of HOUSSE for just two groups of teachers: rural secondary teachers who are teaching multiple subjects and are already highly qualified in one subject area, and special education teachers teaching multiple subjects who are already highly qualified in one of the core areas specified in the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) of 2004.

However, Idaho also indicated that it is reserving the possibility of using HOUSSE in a limited number of “critical situations where it is needed.”

#### **RECOMMENDATION**

Idaho meets this goal in part. Although the state has a sensible overall plan, it should consider eliminating its use of HOUSSE for “critical situations.” The vague wording of this policy leaves the potential for HOUSSE to continue being used in ways that can result in significant numbers of teachers without the requisite subject matter knowledge for delivering effective instruction.

#### **IDAHO RESPONSE**

Idaho had no comment on this goal.

 **BEST PRACTICE**

A number of states have phased out HOUSSE in an extremely efficient manner, including **Alabama, Arizona, Florida, Louisiana, Maine, Minnesota and Wyoming**. These states have already completed the use of HOUSSE for veteran teachers (having done so prior to the start of the 2006-2007 school year), and implemented a revised system that only allows extensions of the process for teachers who fall under the exact exceptions identified by the U.S. Department of Education: rural secondary teachers who are teaching multiple subjects and are already highly qualified in one subject area; special education teachers teaching multiple subjects who are already highly qualified in one of the core areas specified in IDEA 2004; and teachers from other countries teaching in the United States on a temporary basis.

# Area 1: Goal E – Standardizing Credentials

The state should adopt the national standard defining the amount of coursework necessary to earn a major or minor.

## GOAL COMPONENTS

- ⌚ A major should be defined as 30 credit hours.
- ⌚ A minor should be defined as 15 credit hours.

## RATIONALE

- ▶ See appendix for detailed rationale.
- Different definitions of a major and minor pose a burden on teachers.
- The job of the state is to set the minimum standard, not the optimum.
- Multi-subject majors may be an exception.

## SUPPORTING RESEARCH

- ▶ Research citations to support this goal are available at [www.nctq.org/stpy/citations](http://www.nctq.org/stpy/citations).

Figure 11 Standardizing Credentials  
*How States are Faring*



## Area 1: Goal E – Idaho Analysis

### State Nearly Meets Goal

#### **ANALYSIS**

Idaho defines a subject-area major as 30 credit hours. The state's definition of a subject-area minor as 20 credit hours may be unnecessarily high; 15 credit hours are sufficient.

#### **SUPPORTING RESEARCH**

IDAPA 08, Title 02, Chapter 02: Rule 018.02, Rule 020.02

#### **RECOMMENDATION**

Idaho nearly meets this goal. The state should consider simply defining a subject-area minor as 15 credit hours.

#### **IDAHO RESPONSE**

Idaho recognized the factual accuracy of our analysis but added that its approved teacher preparation programs were required to ensure that teacher candidates met state standards, and that the state viewed credit counting as a “dated process to ensure quality.”

#### **LAST WORD**

We do not understand the logic that views our definition of a minor as 15 credit hours as “outdated and credit counting” when the state also uses credit hours to establish its minimum credential standard for a major. The 15/30 definition has been broadly adopted by universities and colleges across the country.

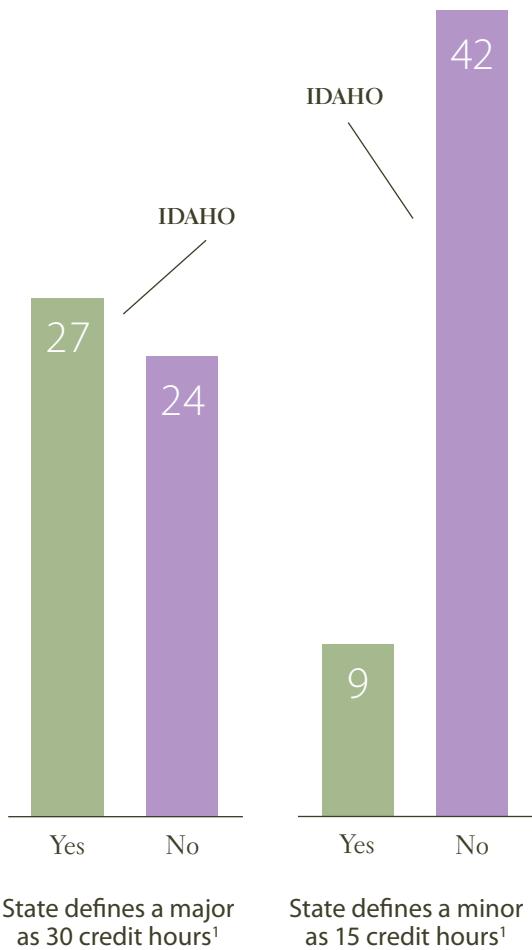
Figure 12 Standardizing Credentials  
*How does IDAHO Fare?*

Has the state defined a major?	<b>YES</b>
Is the state's definition appropriate?	<b>YES</b>
Has the state defined a minor?	<b>YES</b>
Is the state's definition appropriate?	<b>NO (excessive)</b>

## BEST PRACTICE

Several states meet this goal in full: **Alaska, Delaware, New Jersey, Utah, Vermont and West Virginia** all have appropriate definitions of both a major and a minor (or their equivalent).

Figure 13 Standardizing Credentials  
*Towards a National Definition*



<sup>1</sup> States were given credit if their definitions were within a reasonable range of the recommended standard.

## Area 2: Goal A – Defining Professional Knowledge

Through teaching standards, the state should articulate and assess the professional knowledge of teaching and learning that new teachers need, but steer clear of “soft” areas that are hard to measure.

### GOAL COMPONENTS

- ⌚ Standards should describe knowledge that is grounded in science and consensus thinking about effective teaching, while avoiding overt ideological statements and descriptions of teachers’ “soft” attributes that cannot be tested.
- ⌚ Standards should address the needs of the novice teacher, describing the state’s expectations of what a new teacher needs to know before starting to teach.
- ⌚ Standards should be specific enough to drive the instruction of teacher preparation programs and inform teacher candidates of what they need to know in order to become licensed teachers.
- ⌚ The state should verify that new teachers meet its professional standards by means of a licensing test, leaving observations and performance assessments to schools.
- ⌚ All standards should be found in one document, clearly posted on the state’s website, easily accessible to both teacher preparation programs and new teachers.

### RATIONALE

- See appendix for detailed rationale.
- Standards need to be grounded in science and proven practices.
- Standards need to address expectations for the novice teacher.
- Teacher dispositions are hard to assess.
- Standards need to be specific to be useful.
- A good test puts teeth in standards.

### SUPPORTING RESEARCH

- Research citations to support this goal are available at [www.nctq.org/stpy/citations](http://www.nctq.org/stpy/citations).

Figure 14  
Defining Professional Knowledge  
*How States are Faring*



## Area 2: Goal A – Idaho Analysis

### State Meets a Small Part of Goal

#### **ANALYSIS**

Although Idaho's teaching standards have some positive elements, they do not provide a clear articulation of the knowledge and skills new teachers must have. Idaho's standards are largely derived from INTASC's broad standards, and do not clearly refer to new teachers or form the basis of an entry-level test in critical areas of pedagogy. The standards are also largely untestable, referring almost entirely to classroom based applications, which can only be assessed through observation, a time consuming method that is an impractical vehicle for licensing entry level teachers. In addition, Idaho's standards include emotional terms, e.g. "enthusiasm," as well as disposition related statements, which are also untestable and do not focus on teachers' knowledge and skills.

Idaho's standards are extremely vague. References are made to "learning theory" and "communication theory" without citing the specific theories the state views as valid. Idaho explains that its standards "are not all encompassing" and that it is the responsibility of a teacher preparation program to use indicators in a manner "that assures attainment of the standards" (page 1). This statement undermines the state's responsibility to articulate a body of standards that extends across all professional endorsement types and that should consequently guide the setting of institutional standards. Without the state fulfilling this critical role, there can be no guarantee of standardization at the institutional level and, as a result, teaching candidates may not receive the same foundational knowledge.

Specifics relating to even the most basic aspects of professional competence are not clearly articulated. Idaho's standards lack point-by-point references to the elements the state views as required knowledge across all endorsement types in areas such as child and adolescent development, knowledge of reading skills and how language is acquired, and specific aspects of curricular planning and required technology based skills. Idaho includes the vague statement "The teacher understands the principles of effective classroom management" and cites the desired result, such as "positive relationships (and) cooperation" but adds no degree of specificity as to what principles the state holds as valid. This standard is only a platitude and provides no clear guidelines to beginning teachers or teacher preparation programs as to what knowledge is a prerequisite to classroom teaching.

References to interdisciplinary learning (Standard 1) are also ineffective without also citing the need for teachers to know when such methods are appropriate. Such references could be improved by citing additional methods and highlighting the teacher's analytical ability to select among them.

Idaho does require new teachers to have knowledge of the state's student achievement standards. This important connection could form a key element of entry level testing. The state also includes strong references to required knowledge of professional ethics, in-school resources and indicators of abuse and neglect (9-10), which could also form important and measurable components of entry-level testing.

Idaho requires new teachers to pass a popular pedagogy test from the Praxis series in order to attain licensure.

## RECOMMENDATION

Idaho meets only a small part of this goal. Idaho should revise its standards to exclude all untestable and emotionally driven statements and to more clearly address the requirements held for new teachers. Regardless of whether a state uses INTASC standards as the platform for launching its own set of standards, it is still necessary to articulate the knowledge and skills that all teachers in that state should have and that must be demonstrated by new teachers through entry level testing. These standards should include more research citations (book, article and theory references) to help guide teacher preparation programs and better act as a compendium of the knowledge that the state views as vital for all teachers.

In addition, the state should verify that commercially available tests of pedagogy actually serve as an indicator of future teacher effectiveness. It also may want to consider developing its own test to ensure that new teachers enter classrooms with the requisite knowledge and skills.

## IDAHO RESPONSE

Idaho was helpful in providing NCTQ with facts that enhanced our analysis.

## BEST PRACTICE

New York does not have a single set of standards for all new teachers, but the state's framework for its teacher certification tests of professional knowledge serve the same purpose. The state clearly delineates its expectations for the specific professional knowledge new teachers must have. The specificity and testability of New York's standards and their clear connection to the kind of knowledge likely to be related to teacher effectiveness make them an excellent example for other states.

Colorado's standards earn a best practice designation as well, as they focus on the practical aspects of teaching and include the type of specificity that facilitates testing as a means to verify that entry-level teachers meet these standardized requirements.

Texas' clear and specific standards are also among the best in the country. Each standard includes the subheadings "What teachers know" and "What teachers can do," which provide meaningful guidance to teacher candidates and teacher preparation programs and allow these standards to easily form the basis of an entry-level test. The standards are written in excellent detail.

While not state standards, the professional teaching standards of the **American Board for Certification of Teacher Excellence** offer another example of thoughtful, precise teaching standards focused on teacher effectiveness. The third topic in these standards is "Provides Clear and Focused Instruction" which is as far as most state standards go in terms of specificity. ABCTE, however, breaks this general statement down into subtopics, knowledge of which is assessed by well-designed test questions. A few examples of the subtopics ABCTE identifies for providing clear and focused instruction include:

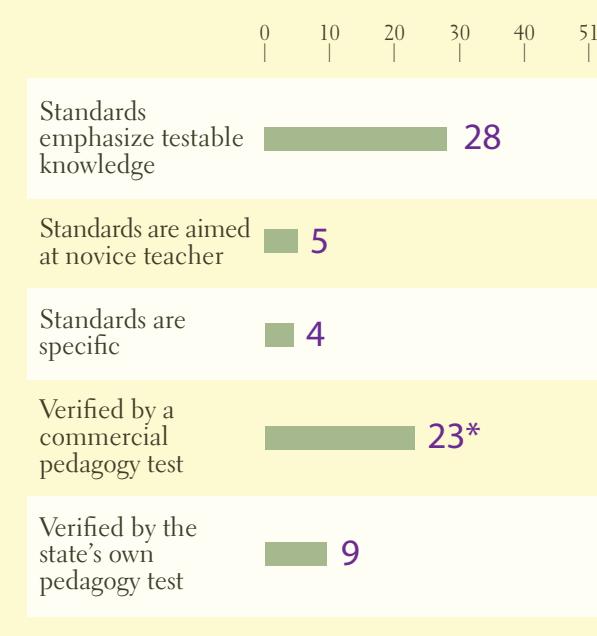
- Teaches vocabulary required for mastery of the subject matter;
- Identifies mistake patterns or knowledge gaps in student responses;
- Systematically reduces or withdraws assistance as students become proficient; and
- Utilizes metaphors and analogies to communicate key ideas.

### Food for Thought

**Backing up standards with research.**

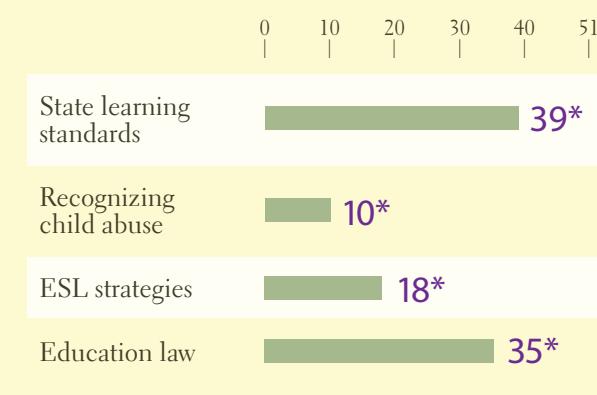
► [See appendix for entire food for thought.](#)

**Figure 15 Defining Professional Knowledge**  
*How Do States Articulate and Assess Teachers' Professional Knowledge?*



\* Including **IDAHO**.

**Figure 16 Defining Professional Knowledge**  
*How Many States' Standards Address These Selected Basic Areas?*



\* Including **IDAHO**.

## Area 2: Goal B – Meaningful Licenses

The state should require that all teachers pass required licensing tests before they begin their second year of teaching.

### GOAL COMPONENTS

⌚ States that confer conditional, provisional, or sometimes even standard licenses on teachers who have not passed the required licensing tests should eliminate their generous waiver policies after one year.

### RATIONALE

- ▶ See appendix for detailed rationale.
- The title of “Teacher” should signify an accomplishment.

### SUPPORTING RESEARCH

- ▶ Research citations to support this goal are available at [www.nctq.org/stpy/citations](http://www.nctq.org/stpy/citations).

Figure 17 Meaningful Licenses  
*How States are Faring*



<sup>1</sup> State only requires elementary teachers to pass licensure tests.

## Area 2: Goal B – Idaho Analysis

### State Does Not Meet Goal

#### **ANALYSIS**

Idaho teachers may, if teaching in the state's alternate route program, teach for up to three years without having passed state licensing tests.

#### **RECOMMENDATION**

Idaho does not meet this goal. The state should require that out-of-state teachers and alternate route teachers pass a subject matter assessment before entering the classroom. This is something that many states are already doing. When this is not possible, the state should ensure that these teachers pass all tests during their first year in the classroom, and are not allowed to teach for a second year without passing. The state may also want to consider requiring that all teachers who have not passed state licensing tests are categorized as long-term substitutes, interns, or instructors.

#### **IDAHO RESPONSE**

Idaho was helpful in providing NCTQ with facts that enhanced our analysis.



"We have teachers who have master's degrees (that we even provide tuition support to help them get!) who cannot pass a basic skills test. These tests assess middle school level skills. This begs two questions: How do they get that far? What does this say about the quality of a college education?"

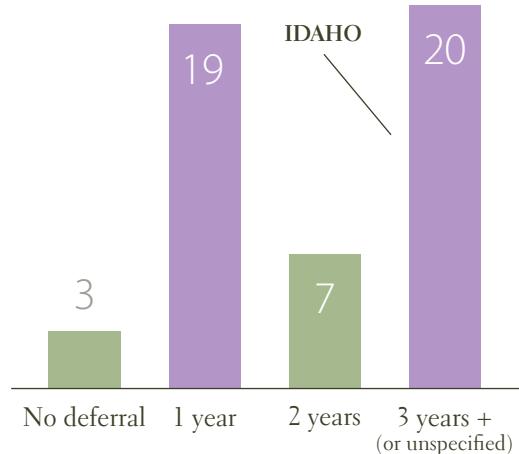
- Gary Thrift, *District Director of Human Resources*

### Food for Thought

Distinguishing teachers who have not passed licensing tests from fully certified teachers.

► [See appendix for entire food for thought.](#)

Figure 18 Meaningful Licenses  
*How Long can New Teachers Practice without Passing Licensing Tests?*



Montana and Nebraska do not currently require licensing tests.

### BEST PRACTICE

Several states meet this goal. **Connecticut** and **Massachusetts** deserve special attention for their more restrictive policies regarding licensure tests. These states restrict the use of one-year testing waivers to transferring and charter school teachers.

## Ⓐ Area 2: Goal C – Interstate Portability

The state should help to make teacher licenses fully portable among states—with appropriate safeguards.

### GOAL COMPONENTS

- ⌚ The state should not use transcript analysis, a method that offers little insight into a teacher's effectiveness, as a means of judging the eligibility of a certified teacher moving from another state. The state can, and should, require evidence of good standing in previous employment, such as letters of reference, current certification status, student achievement data, and/or copies of teacher evaluations.
- ⌚ The state should uphold its standards for all teachers by insisting that teachers meet its testing requirements.

### RATIONALE

- ▶ See appendix for detailed rationale.
- Using transcript analysis to judge teacher competency provides little value.
- Testing requirements should be upheld, not waived.
- Signing on to the NASDTEC Interstate Contract at least signals a willingness to consider portability.

### SUPPORTING RESEARCH

- ▶ Research citations to support this goal are available at [www.nctq.org/stpy/citations](http://www.nctq.org/stpy/citations).

Figure 19 Interstate Portability  
*How States are Faring*



## Area 2: Goal C – Idaho Analysis

### State Partly Meets Goal

#### **ANALYSIS**

Idaho has needlessly restrictive policies for granting licensure to traditionally prepared teachers moving from other states.

The state routinely reviews the college transcripts of licensed out-of-state teachers, an exercise that often leads the state to require additional coursework before it will offer an equivalent license. States that reach a determination about an applicant's licensure status on the basis of the course titles listed on the applicant's transcript may end up mistakenly equating the amount of required coursework with the qualifications of the teacher.

As a likely remnant from an era when many adults did not have necessary computer skills, Idaho also requires transferring teachers to complete a course in "technology competency," but unfortunately does not provide a test-out option for meeting this requirement.

Unlike many states, the state does not grant any waivers on its testing requirements. Appropriately, all out-of-state teachers, no matter how many years of experience they have, must meet Idaho's passing scores on licensing tests.

Finally, Idaho has indicated its willingness to support the portability of teacher licenses by having signed a national agreement known as the NASDTEC Interstate Agreement. While signing this agreement does not ensure that a state will provide *unconditional* reciprocity, it is, at the very least, symbolically important.

#### **RECOMMENDATION**

Idaho meets this goal in part. The state should consider adopting a more flexible policy similar to what is found in other professions, in which teachers would be required to have completed an approved program in another state and meet Idaho's testing standards. Transcript reviews, which involve a state official comparing course titles from the applicant's transcript with Idaho's expectations, are not a particularly meaningful or efficient exercise.

Idaho should offer a test-out option for its technology course.

The state is commended for upholding its testing standards for all teachers.

#### **IDAHO RESPONSE**

Idaho was helpful in providing NCTQ with the facts necessary for our analysis.

Figure 20 Interstate Portability  
*What does IDAHO Require from Teachers Transferring from Another State?*

Does the state offer reciprocity without a lot of strings attached?	NO
Does the state require all teachers to pass its licensing tests?	YES



"I moved to Arizona from Indiana where I had taught music for 25 years. The state said I couldn't get a license until I took another course. They're right I never took the course, but I used to teach it!"

- Neil Manzenberger, Teacher

### BEST PRACTICE

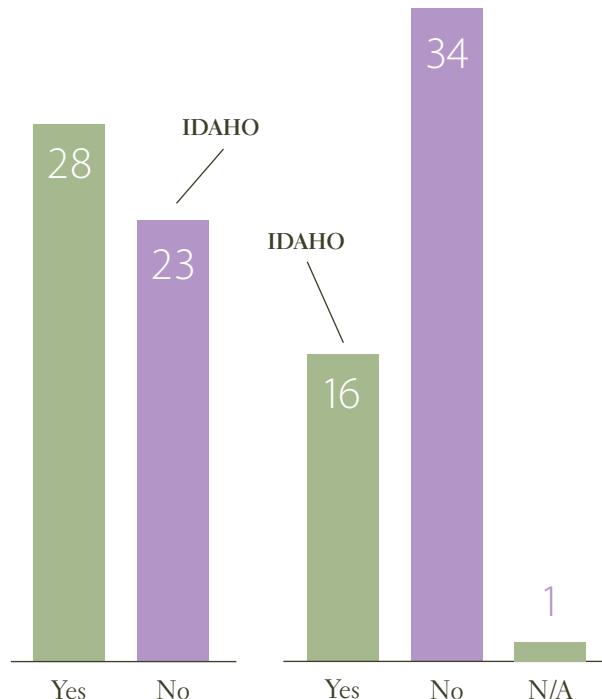
Alabama, Hawaii, Maine and Texas have sensible policies for granting licensure to teachers already licensed in another state. These states will accept teachers who hold valid certificates and meet the state's testing standards.

#### Food for Thought

Consider the recent case of a music teacher from Indiana.

► [See appendix for entire food for thought.](#)

Figure 21 Interstate Portability  
*What Do States Require of Teachers Transferring from Other States?*



Does the state offer reciprocity without a lot of strings attached?

Does the state require all teachers to pass its licensing tests?

## Area 2: Goal D – Teacher Prep in Reading Instruction

The state should ensure that new teachers know the science of reading instruction.

### GOAL COMPONENTS

- >To ensure that teacher preparation programs adequately prepare candidates in the science of reading, the state should require that these programs train teachers in the five instructional components proven by scientifically based reading research to be essential to teaching children to read.
- The most flexible and effective way of achieving this crucial goal is by requiring that new teachers pass a rigorous test of reading instruction in order to attain licensure. Most current tests of pedagogy and reading instruction allow teachers to pass without knowing the science of reading instruction. If a state elects to test knowledge of reading instruction on the general test of pedagogy or elementary content, it should require that the testing company report a subscore clearly revealing the candidates' knowledge in the science of reading. Elementary teachers who do not possess the minimum knowledge needed should not be eligible for a teaching license.

### RATIONALE

- See appendix for detailed rationale.
- Reading instruction should address five essential components.
- Most current reading tests do not offer assurance of teacher knowledge.

### SUPPORTING RESEARCH

- Research citations to support this goal are available at [www.nctq.org/stpy/citations](http://www.nctq.org/stpy/citations).

Figure 22  
Teacher Prep in Reading Instruction  
*How States are Faring*



## Area 2: Goal D – Idaho Analysis

### State Partly Meets Goal

#### **ANALYSIS**

Idaho requires all of its K-8 teachers to take a state-approved comprehensive literacy course. The standards for this course only mention three of the five basic component of the science of reading instruction (phonics, comprehension, and fluency) but allude to “current research and best practices.” This suggests that the state does not fully appreciate the integral nature of the five components or the degree to which the skills build upon each other.

Idaho also requires all of its K-8 pre-service elementary and special education teachers to pass the “Idaho Comprehensive Literacy Assessment.” This assessment is purported to be based on scientifically researched reading instruction but that assurance by the test developers has not been verified by an independent source.

In-service teachers must either take the comprehensive literacy course or pass the assessment before they can recertify.

#### **SUPPORTING RESEARCH**

Idaho Code 33-1207A; <http://ed.isu.edu/COEassessment/asIcla.htm>

#### **RECOMMENDATION**

Idaho meets this goal in part. Because no independent source has verified the strength of Idaho’s licensure exam, it is even more critical that the state adopt more specific standards that reflect all five components of scientifically based reading instruction as described in the National Reading Panel’s 2000 report “Teaching Children to Read.”

#### **IDAHO RESPONSE**

Idaho was helpful in providing NCTQ with the facts necessary for our analysis.

#### **IDAHO RESPONSE CITATION**

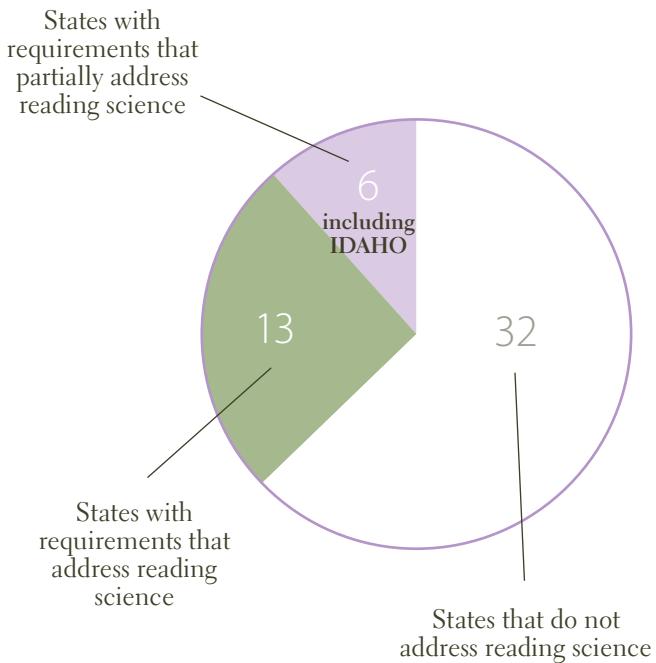
Idaho Code (33-1207A)



**"As a graduate from the most highly recommended teacher prep university in the Midwest, I graduated with high honors. Sadly though, I was not prepared to teach children, especially not prepared to teach children how to read. I discovered that there was a clear and compelling scientific research base about how children learn to read—which my teacher prep program did not address."**

**- Amy Jo Leonard, Teacher**

**Figure 23 Teacher Prep in Reading Instruction  
How Many States Address the Science of Reading?**



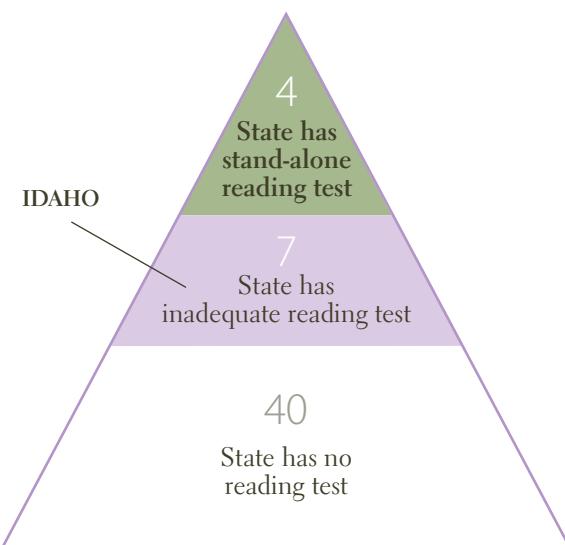
## ★ BEST PRACTICE

Virginia and Massachusetts have some of the strongest policies for teacher preparation in reading instruction in the country. Virginia requires all teacher candidates—including middle and secondary teachers—to complete reading coursework that focuses on the science of reading, and requires pre-kindergarten, elementary and special education teacher candidates to pass a reading exam. Massachusetts has standards that clearly address the science of reading, and requires early childhood, elementary and some special education teachers to pass a reading exam. Recent reviews have rated Virginia and Massachusetts' tests as among a very small number that actually verify teacher candidates' knowledge of the science of reading.

### BEST PRACTICE CITATION

<http://www.tegr.org/Review/Articles/vol2/v2n2.pdf>  
[http://www.rften.org/content/Rigden\\_Report\\_9\\_7\\_06.pdf](http://www.rften.org/content/Rigden_Report_9_7_06.pdf)

**Figure 24 Teacher Prep in Reading Instruction  
How Many States Measure New Teachers' Knowledge of the Science of Reading?**



## Area 2: Goal E – Distinguishing Promising Teachers

The state license should distinguish promising new teachers.

### GOAL COMPONENTS

⌚ States should officially recognize new teachers who are of superior academic caliber.

### RATIONALE

- ▶ See appendix for detailed rationale.
- A teacher's own academic ability matters.

### SUPPORTING RESEARCH

- ▶ Research citations to support this goal are available at [www.nctq.org/stpy/citations](http://www.nctq.org/stpy/citations).

Figure 25  
Distinguishing Promising Teachers  
*How States are Faring*



## Area 2: Goal E – Idaho Analysis

### State Does Not Meet Goal

#### **ANALYSIS**

Idaho does not recognize distinct levels of academic caliber for newly certified teachers.

#### **RECOMMENDATION**

Idaho does not meet this goal. The state should consider recognizing distinct levels of academic caliber at the time of initial certification.

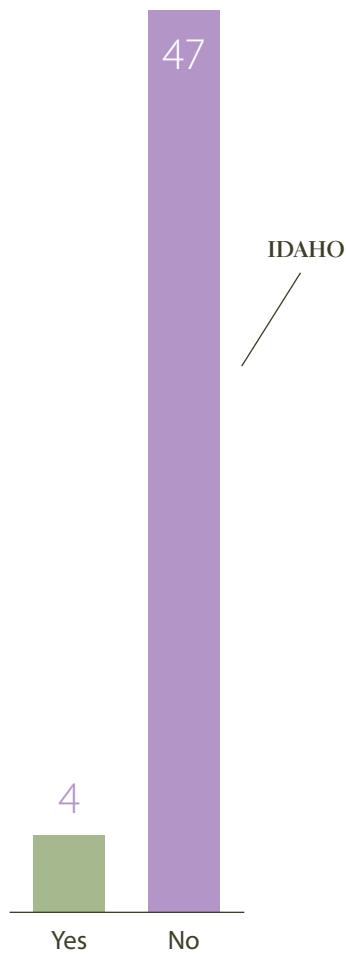
#### **IDAHO RESPONSE**

Idaho recognized the factual accuracy of our analysis.

## BEST PRACTICE

Delaware, the District of Columbia, Maryland and Virginia all offer the Meritorious New Teacher Candidate credential to new teachers with strong academic backgrounds. MNTC holders must score in the upper quartile on state licensing tests and achieve a 3.5 GPA in their undergraduate teacher preparation (or, for secondary teachers, in the content major). They must also score in the upper quartile of the verbal portion of the SAT, ACT or GRE.

Figure 26 Distinguishing Promising Teachers  
*Do States Recognize Academic Caliber on the Initial License?*



*“The system is not set up to attract and embrace the most talented teachers. We need to knock down the barriers to make sure that can happen.”*

*- Ariela Rozman,  
 Teacher Recruitment Program Administrator*



## Area 3: Goal A – Evaluating Teacher Effectiveness

The state should require instructional effectiveness to be the *preponderant* criterion of any teacher evaluation.

### GOAL COMPONENTS

- ⌚ Evaluation instruments should be structured so as to make it impossible for a teacher to receive a satisfactory rating if found ineffective in the classroom. States that choose not to require a common evaluation instrument should still formally endorse the important principle that student learning should be the preponderant consideration in local evaluation processes.
- ⌚ Evaluation instruments should include classroom observations that focus on and document effectiveness of instruction.
- ⌚ Apart from observations, teacher evaluations should consider objective evidence of student learning, including the value a teacher adds not only as measured by standardized test scores, but also by other classroom-based artifacts, such as tests, quizzes, and student work.

### RATIONALE

- See appendix for detailed rationale.
- Teachers should be judged primarily by their impact on students.

### SUPPORTING RESEARCH

- Research citations to support this goal are available at [www.nctq.org/stpy/citations](http://www.nctq.org/stpy/citations).

Figure 27  
Evaluating Teacher Effectiveness  
*How States are Faring*



## Area 3: Goal A – Idaho Analysis

### State Does Not Meet Goal

#### **ANALYSIS**

Idaho policy requires that its school districts develop and inform the state about their teacher evaluation instruments. The districts are required to include the following components: purpose, evaluation criteria, evaluator, sources of data, procedure, communication of results, personnel actions, appeal, remediation, and monitoring and evaluation.

This list of requirements only establishes the broad components that a district must include in its teacher evaluation system. The state does not provide guidance to districts regarding the need to base teacher evaluations on evidence of classroom effectiveness as evidenced by objective and subjective measures of student learning.

#### **SUPPORTING RESEARCH**

Idaho Statutes 33-514

#### **RECOMMENDATION**

Idaho does not meet this goal. The state should consider adopting a policy that requires districts to use evidence of student learning garnered both through subjective and objective measures, such as standardized test results, as the preponderant criterion of a teacher evaluation.

#### **IDAHO RESPONSE**

Idaho had no comment on this goal.

Figure 28 Evaluating Teacher Effectiveness  
*The Proper Role of States in Teacher Evaluation*

	Extent of state guidance on teacher evaluation <sup>1</sup>
Alabama	significant
Alaska	minimal
Arizona	minimal
Arkansas	minimal
California	significant
Colorado	minimal
Connecticut	significant
Delaware	significant
District of Columbia	n/a <sup>2</sup>
Florida	significant
Georgia	significant
Hawaii	significant
<b>IDAHO</b>	none
Illinois	minimal
Indiana	minimal
Iowa	significant
Kansas	minimal
Kentucky	minimal
Louisiana	minimal
Maine	minimal
Maryland	minimal
Massachusetts	minimal
Michigan	minimal
Minnesota	minimal
Mississippi	significant
Missouri	significant
Montana	n/a <sup>2</sup>
Nebraska	minimal
Nevada	minimal
New Hampshire	none
New Jersey	minimal
New Mexico	significant
New York	minimal
North Carolina	significant
North Dakota	none
Ohio	minimal
Oklahoma	minimal
Oregon	none
Pennsylvania	minimal
Rhode Island	n/a <sup>2</sup>
South Carolina	significant
South Dakota	n/a <sup>2</sup>
Tennessee	significant
Texas	significant
Utah	minimal
Vermont	none
Virginia	minimal
Washington	minimal
West Virginia	significant
Wisconsin	minimal
Wyoming	minimal

## BEST PRACTICE

**Florida** is the only state that explicitly requires teacher evaluations to be based primarily on evidence of student learning. The state requires evaluations to rely on classroom observations as well as objective measures of student achievement, including state assessment data. Moreover, Florida specifically states that evaluations should be based on a preponderance of evidence of student learning. **South Carolina, Tennessee and Texas** also structure their formal evaluations so that teachers cannot get an overall satisfactory rating unless they also get a satisfactory rating on each of the evaluation domains, including those directly related to classroom effectiveness.

Two national programs, **Teach For America** and the **Teacher Advancement Program** are also worth noting for the high expectations they set for participating teachers.

Teach For America, which places teachers in some of the hardest-to-serve classrooms in the nation, sets high expectations for its teachers:

- One-and-a-half years' growth in math and reading in one school year (this generally only applies to elementary) or two years' growth in either math or reading in one school year (elementary or secondary); and/or
- 80-percent mastery of state student learning standards—as measured by teacher-chosen diagnostics (elementary or secondary).

These benchmarks (while not related to teachers' employment status) send an important signal to teachers about what the organization values most.

The Teacher Advancement Program has a rigorous performance model for teachers based on:

- Multiple teacher evaluations by multiple evaluators that address instruction, designing and planning instruction, environment, and responsibilities; and
- Value-added student achievement gains (both school-wide and at the classroom level).

### Footnotes for Figure 28

1 Significant guidance means the state requires districts to use a statewide comprehensive evaluation system (or to develop local evaluations that have all the components of the state system and meet state approval OR the state provides significant regulatory guidance to districts about the content and process for teacher evaluations). Minimal guidance means the state provides only general instruction about teacher evaluations.

2 N/A states do not require teacher evaluation.

**BEST PRACTICE CITATION**Teach For America: <http://www.teachforamerica.org/>Teacher Advancement Program: <http://www.talentedteachers.org/>**Food for Thought****Identifying good ways to assess teacher effectiveness.**

► See appendix for entire food for thought.

**Figure 29 Evaluating Teacher Effectiveness**  
***State Efforts to Consider Classroom Effectiveness***

	State requires evaluation to include classroom observation	State requires evaluation to include objective measures of student learning	State requires evidence of student learning to be the preponderant criterion for teacher evaluation
Alabama	■	■	□
Alaska	■	□	□
Arizona	■	□	□
Arkansas	□	□	□
California	■	□	□
Colorado	□	□	□
Connecticut	■	■	□
Delaware	■	■	□
District of Columbia	□	□	□
Florida	■	■	■
Georgia	■	■	□
Hawaii	■	□	□
<b>IDAHO</b>	□	□	□
Illinois	■	□	□
Indiana	□	□	□
Iowa	■	■	□
Kansas	□	□	□
Kentucky	■	□	□
Louisiana	□	□ <sup>1</sup>	□
Maine	□	□	□
Maryland	■	□	□
Massachusetts	□	□	□
Michigan	■	□	□
Minnesota	□	□ <sup>2</sup>	□
Mississippi	■	■	□
Missouri	■	■	□
Montana	□	□	□
Nebraska	■	□	□
Nevada	□	□	□
New Hampshire	□	□	□
New Jersey	■	■	□
New Mexico	■	■	□
New York	■	■	□
North Carolina	■	■	□
North Dakota	□	□	□
Ohio	□	□	□
Oklahoma	■	■	□
Oregon	□	□	□
Pennsylvania	■	□	□
Rhode Island	□	□	□
South Carolina	■	■	■
South Dakota	□	□	□
Tennessee	■	■	■
Texas	■	■	■
Utah	□	□ <sup>3</sup>	□
Vermont	□	□	□
Virginia	□	□	□
Washington	■	□	□
West Virginia	■	□	□
Wisconsin	■	□	□
Wyoming	□	□	□

## Footnotes for Figure 29

1 Louisiana has an optional teacher evaluation system that does make explicit the need to include objective measures of student learning as part of the teacher evaluation.

2 Although Minnesota does not have policies regarding teacher evaluations, the state has implemented an optional teacher evaluation system based on evidence of student learning as measured by observations and objective measures, such as student achievement data.

3 For teachers participating in Utah's career-ladder program, in which teachers earn incentives for taking on additional responsibilities, teacher evaluations must include evidence of student achievement gains.

## Area 3: Goal B – Using Value-Added

The state should install strong value-added instruments to add to schools' knowledge of teacher effectiveness.

### GOAL COMPONENTS

⑤ The state should be the leading innovator in the development of value-added methodology.

Provided there are multiple years of data available, there are a number of meaningful purposes for which a state can help its schools to use this new methodology to obtain data about individual teachers:

- Identifying professional development needs;
- Evaluating teachers, provided other criteria are considered as well;
- Awarding individual bonuses, provided other criteria are considered as well; and
- Providing the objective data needed for dismissal of an ineffective teacher.

Value-added analysis is also useful at the school level before multiple years of data are available:

- Analyzing the overall effectiveness of a team of teachers or the entire school staff;
- Designing school-improvement plans;
- Awarding schoolwide bonuses.

Value-added systems can also be used to hold teacher preparation programs accountable. By linking individual teacher performance back to teacher preparation programs and aggregating the data for all program graduates, the state can learn which programs are producing the most effective teachers.

⑥ To lay the necessary groundwork for value-added analysis, the state needs to establish a student- and teacher-level longitudinal data system with, at the very least, three key components:

- A unique statewide student identifier number that connects student data across key databases across years;
- A unique teacher identifier system that can match individual teacher records with individual student records;
- An assessment system with the ability to match individual student test records from year to year to measure academic growth.

Figure 30 Using Value-Added  
*How States are Faring*



## RATIONALE

- ▶ See appendix for detailed rationale.
- What is value-added analysis?
- There are a number of responsible uses for value-added analysis

## SUPPORTING RESEARCH

- ▶ Research citations to support this goal are available at [www.nctq.org/stpy/citations](http://www.nctq.org/stpy/citations).

Figure 31 Using Value-Added  
Developing Capacity with the Three  
Key Components<sup>1</sup>



45

18

42

Footnotes for Figure 31

1 Data source: Data Quality Campaign, reported Fall 2006, [www.dataqualitycampaign.org](http://www.dataqualitycampaign.org). State responses were reported by data directors from state education agencies in September 2006. Although the Data Quality Campaign lists ten essential elements for developing a strong, functional student-level longitudinal database, NCTQ is highlighting the three elements that most statisticians and economists agree are absolutely essential for developing value-added data analysis: 1) a unique statewide student identifier number that connects student data across key databases across years, 2) a unique teacher identifier system that can connect individual teacher records with student records, and 3) the ability to match individual student test records year to year to measure academic growth.

## Area 3: Goal B – Idaho Analysis

### State Does Not Meet Goal

#### **ANALYSIS**

Idaho does not have a value-added assessment model that analyzes the effect of teachers on student achievement gains.

Idaho currently has none of the three necessary elements that would allow for the development of a student- and teacher-level longitudinal data system. The state has not yet assigned unique student identifiers that connect individual student data across key databases, nor does the state have the capacity to match student records with teacher records. Also, the state is unable to match student test records from year to year so as to measure student academic growth.

#### **SUPPORTING RESEARCH**

Data Quality Campaign: [www.dataqualitycampaign.org](http://www.dataqualitycampaign.org)

#### **RECOMMENDATION**

Idaho does not meet this goal. Idaho should consider expanding its data system to include unique student identifiers, matching of student test records over time, and the linking of teacher and student records—all necessary components to enable the development of value-added analysis. A value-added assessment model would begin providing some limited evidence of teacher effectiveness, a particularly important innovation if districts wish to adopt performance pay plans and give schools the ability to reliably measure overall school performance.

#### **IDAHO RESPONSE**

Idaho recognized that it does not currently conduct value-added analysis and adds that the State Board of Education has formed a committee to examine the value-added approach to student assessment.

## **BEST PRACTICE**

Tennessee pioneered the first statewide value-added assessment (Tennessee Value-Added Assessment System) that analyzes and reports student achievement gains at the classroom level. Although value-added analysis is not included as an indicator on teacher evaluations in Tennessee, school districts do use the data to better target the professional development needs of teachers.

### **Food for Thought**

**Building state longitudinal data systems: laying the foundation for value-added methodology.**

► [See appendix for entire food for thought.](#)

## Area 3: Goal C – Teacher Evaluation

The state should require that schools formally evaluate teachers on an annual basis.

### GOAL COMPONENTS

- ⌚ The state should require that all teachers receive a formal evaluation annually.
- ⌚ The state should work with districts to encourage them to adopt a statewide standard, requiring all teachers who have received a single unsatisfactory evaluation to be placed on an improvement plan—no matter what their employment status may be.
- ⌚ The state should work with districts to encourage them to adopt a statewide standard, requiring that all teachers who have received two unsatisfactory evaluations within five years be formally eligible for dismissal—no matter what their employment status may be.

### RATIONALE

- See appendix for detailed rationale.
- Annual evaluations are standard practice in most professional jobs.

### SUPPORTING RESEARCH

- Research citations to support this goal are available at [www.nctq.org/stpy/citations](http://www.nctq.org/stpy/citations).

Figure 32 Teacher Evaluation  
*How States are Faring*



## Area 3: Goal C – Idaho Analysis

### State Meets Goal

#### **ANALYSIS**

Idaho requires that tenured teachers be evaluated annually. Non-tenured teachers must be evaluated twice annually.

The state does provide some guidance on how a district must proceed regarding a teacher with an unsatisfactory evaluation. A teacher receiving a negative evaluation is given a one-year probationary period, but the state does not indicate the consequences of a second negative evaluation.

#### **RECOMMENDATION**

Idaho meets this goal. Idaho is commended for requiring annual evaluations and for placing on probation teachers who receive a single negative evaluation. The state should consider adopting a policy whereby teachers receiving two negative evaluations within five years are automatically eligible for dismissal.

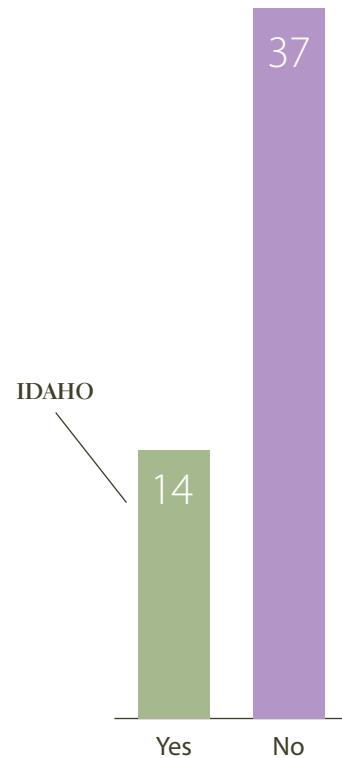
#### **IDAHO RESPONSE**

Idaho had no comment on this goal.

### BEST PRACTICE

Pennsylvania requires annual evaluations of all teachers and provides guidance to districts about the need to place teachers receiving unsatisfactory evaluations on probation. Furthermore, Pennsylvania requires that teachers who do not improve are formally eligible for dismissal.

Figure 33 Teacher Evaluation  
*Do States Require Annual Evaluations?*



## Area 3: Goal D – Compensation Reform

The state should encourage, not block, efforts at compensation reform.

### GOAL COMPONENTS

- ⌚ The state should not have a minimum salary schedule; it should only articulate the minimum starting salary that every teacher should be paid. Further, the state should not have regulatory language that would block differential pay.
- ⌚ The state should encourage compensation reform by offering differential pay programs that tie teacher pay to district and school needs, such as recruiting and retaining teachers in hard-to-staff subjects and schools.
- ⌚ The state should experiment with performance pay efforts, rewarding teachers for their effectiveness in the classroom.

### RATIONALE

- See appendix for detailed rationale.
- Reform can be accomplished within the context of local control.
- There is an important difference between setting the minimum teacher salary in a state and setting a salary schedule.

### SUPPORTING RESEARCH

- Research citations to support this goal are available at [www.nctq.org/stpy/citations](http://www.nctq.org/stpy/citations).

Figure 34 Compensation Reform  
*How States are Faring*



## Area 3: Goal D – Idaho Analysis

### State Partly Meets Goal

#### **ANALYSIS**

Idaho does not have a state-regulated minimum salary schedule although the state has appropriately has set a minimum starting salary of \$27,500. Further, the state has no regulatory language that directly blocks differential pay.

Despite this flexibility, the state does not support differential pay initiatives that would encourage the recruitment and retention of teachers in hard-to-staff schools or shortage subject areas. The state also has not initiated or supported a performance pay plan that would reward effective teachers. Yet, the state does offer \$10,000 bonuses to teachers certified by the National Board for Professional Teaching Standards. The bonuses are distributed in installments of \$2,000 per year for five years.

#### **SUPPORTING RESEARCH**

Idaho Code 33.1004E, subsection 1

Education Counts: <http://www2.edweek.org/agentk-12/states/id.html?state=ID>

National Board for Professional Teaching Standards: [http://www.nbpts.org/resources/state\\_local\\_information](http://www.nbpts.org/resources/state_local_information)

#### **RECOMMENDATION**

Idaho meets this goal in part. Idaho is commended for not placing regulatory obstacles in the way of compensation reform. Idaho should consider developing differential pay plans as a way to link teacher compensation more closely to district and school needs and achieve greater equitable distribution of teachers. The state should also consider developing or encouraging the development of performance pay plans that would reward effective teachers.

#### **IDAHO RESPONSE**

Idaho was helpful in providing NCTQ with the facts necessary for our analysis.

## BEST PRACTICE

**Florida** offers strong policies that encourage and protect compensation reform. The state has passed legislation that requires local districts to offer differential pay. Moreover, the state prohibits districts from approving collective bargaining agreements that preclude salary incentives.

### BEST PRACTICE CITATION

Florida Statute 1012.22; 1012.2315

Figure 35 Compensation Reform  
Are States Encouraging Compensation Reform?



32

28

12

### Footnotes for Figure 35

1 The state may still set the minimum starting salary, but the state lets districts negotiate the terms and rates of all subsequent pay increases.

2 Differential pay includes state-sponsored financial incentives for recruiting and retaining teachers in hard-to-staff schools or subject-area shortages. Data sources: “Quality Counts,” a project of Education Week (<http://www2.edweek.org/agentk-12/states/>); states’ “Highly Qualified Teacher” plans submitted to the US Department of Education (<http://www.ed.gov/programs/teacherqual/hqtplans/index.html>); and state responses to NCTQ inquiries.

3 Only performance pay initiatives that are funded or sponsored by the state are included.

Figure 36 Compensation Reform  
*What can a NBPTS<sup>1</sup> Certified Teacher with a  
 Base Salary of \$50,000 Earn?<sup>2</sup>*



*"The quality of teaching is never recognized, good or bad. The most ineffective, careless teachers are paid just the same—and sometimes more than the most successful ones. Most schools just aren't the sort of place that skilled and talented people want to work because those characteristics aren't valued or rewarded."*

*- Haily Korman, Teacher*

Footnotes for Figure 36

1 NBPTS=National Board for Professional Teaching Standards

2 Figures based on teaching in a high-needs school.

## Area 3: Goal E – Tenure

The state should not give teachers permanent status (tenure) until they have been teaching for five years.

### GOAL COMPONENTS

- ☒ The state's probationary period should not end until a teacher has been in the classroom for five years.

### RATIONALE

- ▶ See appendix for detailed rationale.
- Tenure should be a meaningful milestone in a teacher's career.

### SUPPORTING RESEARCH

- ▶ Research citations to support this goal are available at [www.nctq.org/stpy/citations](http://www.nctq.org/stpy/citations).

Figure 37 Tenure  
*How States are Faring*



## Area 3: Goal E – Idaho Analysis

### State Meets a Small Part of Goal

#### **ANALYSIS**

Idaho has a three-year probationary period for new teachers.

#### **SUPPORTING RESEARCH**

Idaho Code 33-515

#### **RECOMMENDATION**

Idaho meets only a small part of this goal. Idaho should consider extending the minimum probationary period for permanent status to five years.

#### **IDAHO RESPONSE**

Idaho was helpful in providing NCTQ with facts that enhanced our analysis.

## BEST PRACTICE

Two states, **Indiana** and **Missouri**, currently have probationary periods of five years for new teachers.

Figure 39 Tenure  
*How Long Before a Teacher Earns Tenure?*

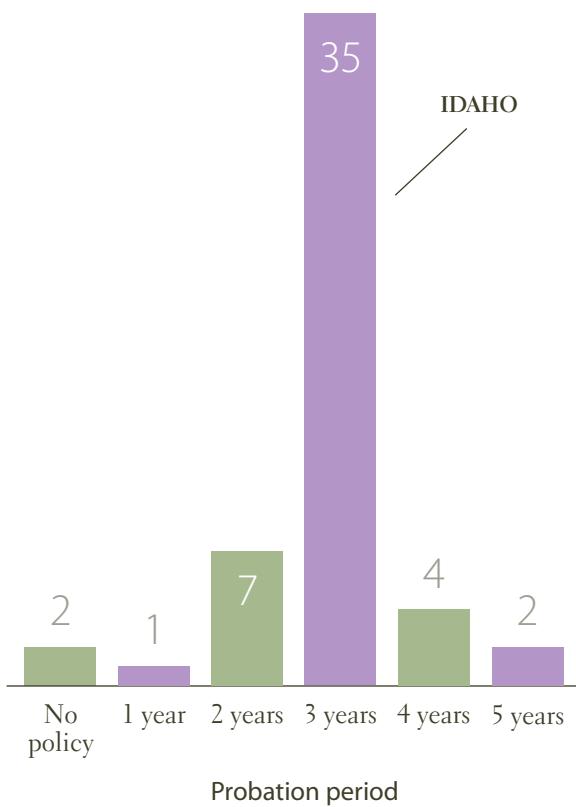


Figure 38 Tenure  
*How Long Before a Teacher Earns Tenure?*  
State-by-State Breakout

	No policy	1 year	2 years	3 years	4 years	5 years
Alabama	□	□	□	■	□	□
Alaska	□	□	□	■	□	□
Arizona	□	□	□	■	□	□
Arkansas	□	□	□	■	□	□
California	□	□	■	□	□	□
Colorado	□	□	□	■	□	□
Connecticut	□	□	□	□	■	□
Delaware	□	□	□	■	□	□
District of Columbia	■	□	□	□	□	□
Florida	□	□	□	■	□	□
Georgia	□	□	□	■	□	□
Hawaii	□	□	□	■	□	□
IDAHO	□	□	□	■	□	□
Illinois	□	□	□	□	■	□
Indiana	□	□	□	□	□	■
Iowa	□	□	□	■	□	□
Kansas	□	□	□	■	□	□
Kentucky	□	□	□	■	□	□
Louisiana	□	□	□	■	□	□
Maine	□	□	■	□	□	□
Maryland	□	□	■	□	□	□
Massachusetts	□	□	□	■	□	□
Michigan	□	□	□	□	■	□
Minnesota	□	□	□	■	□	□
Mississippi	□	□	■	□	□	□
Missouri	□	□	□	□	□	■
Montana	□	□	□	■	□	□
Nebraska	□	□	□	□	■	□
Nevada	□	□	■	□	□	□
New Hampshire	□	□	□	■	□	□
New Jersey	□	□	□	■	□	□
New Mexico	□	□	□	■	□	□
New York	□	□	□	■	□	□
North Carolina	□	□	□	□	■	□
North Dakota	□	■	□	□	□	□
Ohio	□	□	□	■	□	□
Oklahoma	□	□	□	■	□	□
Oregon	□	□	□	■	□	□
Pennsylvania	□	□	□	■	□	□
Rhode Island	□	□	□	■	□	□
South Carolina	□	□	□	■	□	□
South Dakota	□	□	□	■	□	□
Tennessee	□	□	□	■	□	□
Texas	□	□	□	■	□	□
Utah	□	□	□	■	□	□
Vermont	□	□	■	□	□	□
Virginia	□	□	□	■	□	□
Washington	□	□	■	□	□	□
West Virginia	□	□	□	■	□	□
Wisconsin	■	□	□	□	□	□
Wyoming	□	□	□	■	□	□
	2	1	7	35	4	2

## Area 4: Goal A – Entry Into Preparation Programs

The state should require undergraduate teacher preparation programs to administer a basic skills test as a criterion for admission.

### GOAL COMPONENTS

- It is inappropriate to wait until teacher candidates are ready to apply for licensure to administer a basic skills test that assesses reading, writing, and mathematics.
- All approved programs in a state should use a common test to facilitate program comparison.
- The state, not teacher preparation programs, should set the score needed to pass this test.
- Programs should have the option of exempting candidates who submit comparable SAT/ACT scores at a level set by the state.

### RATIONALE

- See appendix for detailed rationale.
- The best time for assessing basic skills is at program entry.
- Screening candidates at program entry protects the public's investment.

### SUPPORTING RESEARCH

- Research citations to support this goal are available at [www.nctq.org/stpy/citations](http://www.nctq.org/stpy/citations).

Figure 40 Entry Into Preparation Programs  
*How States are Faring*



## Area 4: Goal A – Idaho Analysis

### State Does Not Meet Goal

#### **ANALYSIS**

Idaho does not require aspiring teachers to pass a basic skills test as a condition for admission to a teacher preparation program or at any time thereafter.

#### **RECOMMENDATION**

Idaho does not meet this goal. The state should consider requiring that its approved teacher preparation programs only accept applicants who have first passed a basic skills test or demonstrated equivalent performance on a college entrance exam. Furthermore, the test, the minimum passing score, and the equivalent college entrance exam scores should be determined by the state.

#### **IDAHO RESPONSE**

Idaho recognized the factual accuracy of our analysis.

## BEST PRACTICE

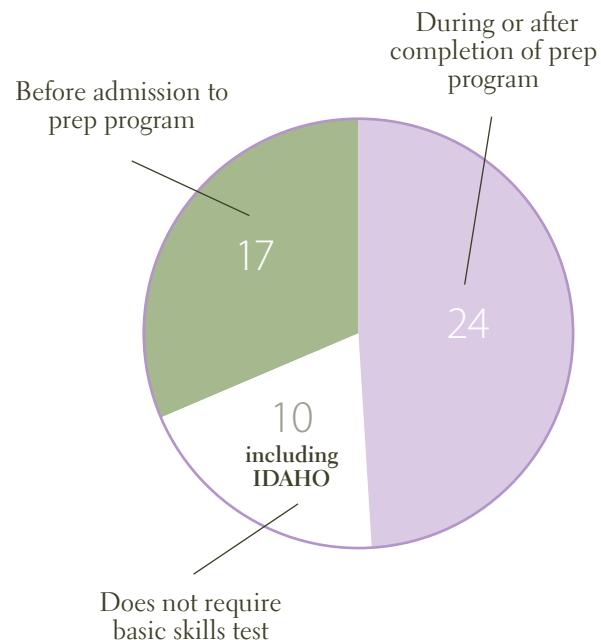
A number of states—Connecticut, Louisiana, Mississippi, North Carolina, South Carolina, Tennessee and West Virginia—require candidates to pass a basic skills test as a condition for admission to a teacher preparation program. These states set a minimum passing score for the test. They also eliminate unnecessary testing by allowing candidates to opt out of the basic skills test by demonstrating a sufficiently high score on the SAT or ACT.

### Food for Thought

**Using testing to expand and restrict the supply of teachers.**

► [See appendix for entire food for thought.](#)

Figure 41 Entry Into Preparation Programs  
*When do States Test Basic Skills?*



## Area 4: Goal B – Program Accountability

The state should base its approval of teacher preparation programs on measures that focus on the quality of the teachers coming out of the programs.

### GOAL COMPONENTS

- ⌚ The most important currently available data for states to collect are candidates' pass rates on state licensing tests, but more meaningful data on this variable need to be obtained. Rather than ask that programs report the pass rates of teachers graduating from the program, the state should ask programs to report the percentage of teacher candidates who entered student teaching and who were able to pass state licensing tests. Even more can be learned by asking the percentage of teachers who passed on first attempt versus multiple attempts.
- ⌚ In addition to better pass-rate information, states should consider collecting the following data, which comprise a more comprehensive index of program performance:
  - Average raw scores of graduates on licensing tests (basic skills, subject matter, professional);
  - Satisfaction ratings (by school principals and teacher supervisors) of programs' student teachers, using a standardized form to permit program comparison;
  - Evaluation results from first and/or second year of teaching and percentage of teachers eligible for tenure;
  - Academic achievement gains of graduates' students averaged over the first three years of teaching; and
  - Five-year retention rate of graduates in the teaching profession.
- ⌚ The state should also establish the minimum standard of performance for each of these categories of data. Programs must be held accountable for meeting these standards and the state, after due process, should shut down programs that do not do so.
- ⌚ The state should produce an annual report card, published on the state's website, that shows all of the data that the state collects on individual teacher preparation programs.
- ⌚ The state can also collect the following evidence as well, although it may be unwise to use them as accountability measures:
  - The program limits admission to certification areas that produce too many teachers;

Figure 42 Program Accountability  
*How States are Faring*



Figure 43 Program Accountability  
*How do States Hold Teacher Prep  
 Programs Accountable?*

	State collects objective program-specific data	State sets minimum standards for performance <sup>1</sup>	State makes data publicly available on website
Alabama	■	■	■
Alaska	□	□	□
Arizona	□	□	□
Arkansas	■	□	■ <sup>2</sup>
California	□	□	□
Colorado	■	□	□
Connecticut	□	□	□
Delaware	□	□	□
District of Columbia	□	□	□
Florida	■	■	□
Georgia	□	□	□
Hawaii	□	□	□
IDAHO	□	□	□
Illinois	□	□	□
Indiana	■	□	□
Iowa	□	□	□
Kansas	□	□	■ <sup>2</sup>
Kentucky	■	■	■
Louisiana	■	■	■ <sup>2</sup>
Maine	□	□	□
Maryland	□	□	□
Massachusetts	■	□	□
Michigan	□	□	□
Minnesota	□	□	□
Mississippi	■	■	□
Missouri	□	□	□
Montana	□	□	□
Nebraska	□	□	□
Nevada	■	■	□
New Hampshire	□	□	□
New Jersey	□	□	□
New Mexico	□	□	□
New York	□	□	□
North Carolina	■	■	■
North Dakota	□	□	□
Ohio	■	□	□
Oklahoma	□	□	□
Oregon	■	□	□
Pennsylvania	□	□	□
Rhode Island	□	□	□
South Carolina	■	■	■ <sup>2</sup>
South Dakota	□	□	□
Tennessee	■	□	□
Texas	■	□	■ <sup>2</sup>
Utah	□	□	□
Vermont	■	■	□
Virginia	■	□	□
Washington	□	□	□
West Virginia	□	□	□
Wisconsin	□	□	□
Wyoming	□	□	□

- The program trains teachers in high-shortage areas;
- The number of candidates taking jobs in-state, out-of-state, or not entering the profession.

### RATIONALE

- ▶ See appendix for detailed rationale.
- States need to hold programs accountable for the quality of their graduates.

### SUPPORTING RESEARCH

- ▶ Research citations to support this goal are available at [www.nctq.org/stpy/citations](http://www.nctq.org/stpy/citations).

#### Footnotes for Figure 43

1 State sets minimal standard of performance for some but not all of the areas recommended by NCTQ.

2 State makes reports on program pass rates on state licensure tests available on its website, but does not make other key outcome and performance data available to the public.

## Area 4: Goal B – Idaho Analysis

### State Does Not Meet Goal

#### **ANALYSIS**

Idaho does not collect the objective, measurable data recommended by NCTQ when deciding whether a teacher preparation program should receive state approval.

According to the state’s program approval standards, “acceptable” teacher preparation programs must demonstrate pass-rates of 80 percent on state licensing assessments, in alignment with the NCATE standard. However, the 80 percent pass rate standard, while common among many states, sets the bar quite low, and may not be a meaningful measure of program performance. It is also unclear whether states failing to meet this standard will necessarily be classified as low-performing or put on probation. State documents indicate that “the rubric shall be used to make holistic judgments.”

The state’s website does not include a report card that allows the public to review and compare program performance.

#### **SUPPORTING RESEARCH**

Standards-Based State Program Approval Rubric for Teacher Preparation Programs, Page 1; Title II Report 2006; Title II Report 2005; Title II Report 2004

#### **RECOMMENDATION**

Idaho does not meet this goal. The state should consider making objective outcomes the focus of its teacher preparation program approval process and establishing precise standards for program performance that are more useful for accountability purposes. At minimum, the state should require programs to report pass rates for individuals entering student teaching, not program completers, as the latter method masks the number of individuals the program was unable to properly prepare. In addition, the state should consider raising the minimum pass rate on its licensing test. Other states including Florida and Nevada, are requiring 90 or 95 percent pass rates.

Idaho should also post an annual report card on its website that details the data it collects and the criteria used for program approval. This report card should also identify the programs that fail to meet these criteria and why they failed.

#### **IDAHO RESPONSE**

Idaho recognized the factual accuracy of our analysis.

Figure 44 Program Accountability  
*What Measures is IDAHO Collecting?*

Average raw scores on licensing tests	<b>NO</b>
Satisfaction ratings from schools	<b>NO</b>
Evaluation results for program graduates	<b>NO</b>
Student learning gains	<b>NO</b>
Teacher retention rates	<b>NO</b>



### BEST PRACTICE

While no state fully meets NCTQ's recommendations for approval of teacher preparation programs, **Alabama** and **Louisiana** do base program approval on the quality of graduates. Alabama holds programs accountable on the basis of first-year teachers evaluations by their principals, among other indicators. Alabama has established clear standards for performance and makes its findings transparent by posting the data and program grades on its website. Louisiana's program approval process includes a number of objective outcomes. In addition, program scores are determined on the basis of a relatively complex rating formula. The state intends for the scores a program must have to increase over time, so that programs must consistently demonstrate growth.

**"We welcome the opportunity to show that the teachers coming out of our program will be among the best in the state. We see the importance of being transparent with regard to teacher performance and demanding with regard to learning outcome expectations."**

*- Tom Lasley, Dean, College of Education*

## Area 4: Goal C – Program Approval and Accreditation

The state should keep its program approval process wholly separate from accreditation.

### GOAL COMPONENTS

- ⌚ The state should not allow its teacher preparation programs to substitute national accreditation for state program approval.
- ⌚ The state should not require its teacher preparation programs to attain national accreditation in order to receive state approval.

### RATIONALE

- See appendix for detailed rationale.
- Accreditation is concerned with inputs, *how* a program achieves quality; state approval of programs should be about outputs.

### SUPPORTING RESEARCH

- Research citations to support this goal are available at [www.nctq.org/stpy/citations](http://www.nctq.org/stpy/citations).

Figure 45  
Program Approval and Accreditation  
*How States are Faring*



## Area 4: Goal C – Idaho Analysis

### State Partly Meets Goal

#### **ANALYSIS**

Idaho does not require that its teacher preparation programs attain national accreditation in order to receive state approval.

However, the state requires that teacher preparation programs not accredited by NCATE address that group's standards and demonstrate during an on-site teacher preparation program review how they are being met.

This policy is not a mandate, but it is an inappropriate conflation of the national accreditation and state approval processes.

#### **SUPPORTING RESEARCH**

The Idaho Certification Manual, Part 1, Page 7

#### **RECOMMENDATION**

Idaho meets this goal in part. The state should not require that approved programs address NCATE standards in order to keep its program approval process wholly separate from the decisions of private accrediting bodies.

#### **IDAHO RESPONSE**

Idaho stated that its own standards were the official criteria for approving teacher preparation programs.

#### **LAST WORD**

Idaho may consider its own standards to be the decisive criterion in program approval, but the state's own documents clearly state "non-NCATE programs must demonstrate that they are meeting NCATE standards as part of the state program approval process."

 **BEST PRACTICE**

The nature of this goal does not lend itself to a best practice, as NCTQ is recommending that states avoid a specific policy, rather than pursuing one.

**Figure 46**  
**Program Approval and Accreditation**  
*Side Stepping State Approval with  
Private Accreditation*

Which states allow substitution of national accreditation for state approval?

**Georgia, Maine, Michigan**

Which states require some programs to attain national accreditation in order to attain state approval?

**Louisiana, Maryland, Mississippi**

Which states require all programs to attain national accreditation in order to receive state approval?

**Alaska, Arkansas, New Jersey,  
North Carolina, Utah**

## Area 4: Goal D – Controlling Coursework Creep

The state should regularly review the professional coursework that teacher candidates are required to take, in order to ensure an efficient and balanced program of study.

### GOAL COMPONENTS

- ⌚ The state should adopt policies designed to encourage efficient delivery of the professional sequence, for both its own requirements and the requirements made by individual programs.
- ⌚ The state should mandate only coursework or standards that are likely to make teachers more effective in the classroom.

### RATIONALE

- See appendix for detailed rationale.
- Most states have programs that demand excessive requirements.
- States should only mandate courses or set standards that relate to student achievement, giving programs discretion to determine remaining sequence.
- States need to establish a cycle for reviewing their coursework requirements.
- States need to monitor programs' total professional coursework requirements.

### SUPPORTING RESEARCH

- Research citations to support this goal are available at [www.nctq.org/stpy/citations](http://www.nctq.org/stpy/citations).

Figure 47 Controlling Coursework Creep  
*How States are Faring*



## Area 4: Goal D – Idaho Analysis

### State Does Not Meet Goal

#### **ANALYSIS**

Idaho requires teacher candidates to complete a minimum amount of professional education coursework in order to attain licensure.

Elementary school teachers must complete 24 or more credit hours in professional education coursework, and secondary teachers must complete a minimum of 20 credit hours. Idaho's education coursework requirements are less extensive than those of many other states. However, states setting minimum coursework requirements still need to monitor the number of credit hours that programs require, if only to ensure that they deliver content efficiently, eliminating outdated or redundant courses. Moreover, while Idaho's policies do nothing to limit the amount of professional coursework that institutions can require, they do require that teacher preparation programs deliver instruction in pedagogical areas that may have little to do with teacher effectiveness. Idaho requires its programs to deliver instruction in professionalism, and the state's standards closely mirror those of NCATE, which focus on several areas that may not be directly related to increased teacher effectiveness.

While assessing the value of coursework requires careful analysis, the sheer quantity of required courses at some of Idaho's teacher preparation programs is cause for concern. For example, Boise State University's program in elementary education requires the completion of 61 credit hours in education coursework, the equivalent of two full majors. These are excessive requirements that could easily discourage talented individuals from pursuing teaching.

#### **SUPPORTING RESEARCH**

IDAPA 08, Title 02, Chapter 02: Rules 018.01, 020.01; Idaho Praxis II Assessment Handbook;  
<http://education.boisestate.edu/cifs/forms/CheckoffWithoutPreendorsements-new%20program10-19-05.pdf>

#### **RECOMMENDATION**

Idaho does not meet this goal. The state should consider adopting policies that can check the tendency of teacher preparation programs to impose an ever-increasing number of professional coursework requirements.

Other states have adopted policies in this area that the state could adapt to its own needs. New Jersey's approach of placing a set limit on coursework is straightforward, but also decreases programs' flexibility. Tennessee's approach of providing a general template illustrating how coursework requirements should be allocated may provide more flexibility. In either case, states can avoid tying the hands of rigorous professional programs by exempting institutions that demonstrate the value of additional coursework. States should allow programs to exceed state guidelines if doing so produces more effective teachers but that would require the programs to produce the sort of outcomes data described in Goal 4-B.

Idaho's professional coursework requirements and teaching standards could also use some improvement (see Goal 2-A), and may do little to enhance teacher effectiveness. The state should work to ensure that it requires programs to deliver only professional knowledge directly related to increased student learning, letting programs decide for themselves whether or not to require additional coursework that may not be related to student learning.

### **IDAHO RESPONSE**

Idaho was helpful in providing NCTQ with facts that enhanced our analysis.

## BEST PRACTICE

Teacher preparation programs in Tennessee are required to offer courses based roughly on a template laid out in state policy. According to this template, teacher preparation should consist of the following components:

- 50 percent of the program is devoted to general liberal arts coursework;
- 30 percent of the program is devoted to a major in a specific area;
- 20 percent of the program is devoted to professional coursework.

New Jersey has policies explicitly limiting the amount of professional coursework that programs may require, while also allowing exceptions for programs that can justify additional requirements. While this policy does place a check on programs' tendency to require excessive amounts of coursework, it offers less flexibility than Tennessee's model. Nevertheless, the state is commended for addressing this issue.

### Food for Thought

**An alternative to limiting the amount of professional coursework.**

► See appendix for entire food for thought.



*"I have always been passionate about teaching and education but the process to become a teacher never inspired me. Learning to teach should be provoking, not tedious and mundane. If only I could have found a challenging and exciting undergraduate program, then I would have gone into the classroom."*

*- Eric Dang, Assistant to State Legislator*

**Figure 48 Controlling Coursework Creep  
Are States Controlling Program Excesses?**

States with at least one approved program that requires 60 or more credit hours in ed coursework

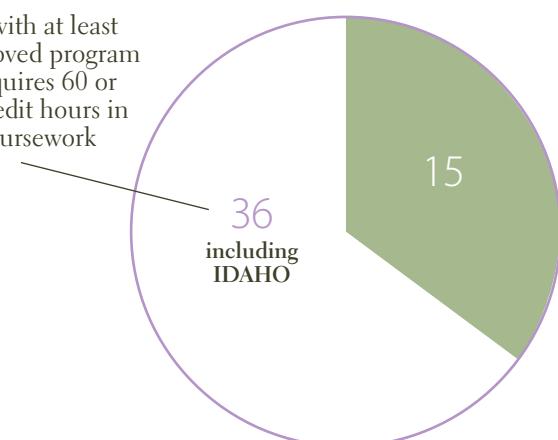
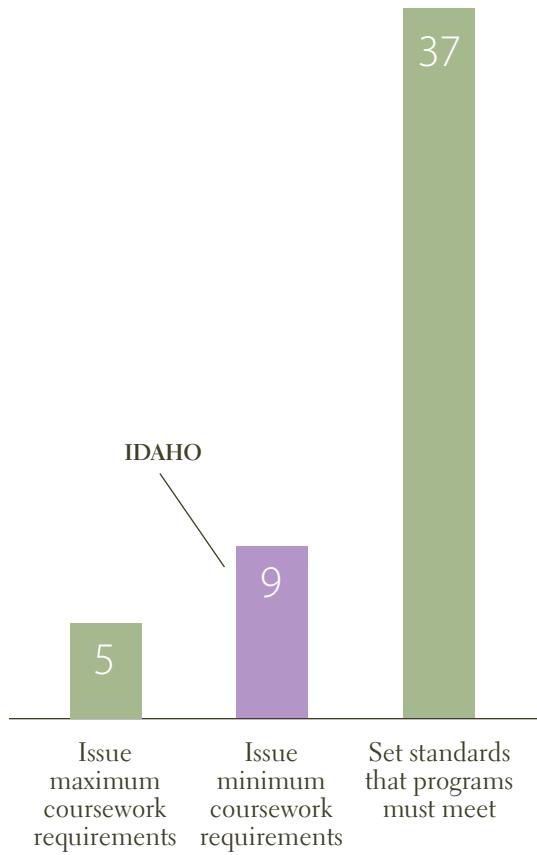


Figure 49 Controlling Coursework Creep

*How do States Regulate Teacher Prep  
Programs' Course of Study?*



## Ⓐ Area 5: Goal A – Genuine Alternatives

The state should ensure its alternate routes to certification are well structured, meeting the needs of new teachers.

### GOAL COMPONENTS

There are nine features which define a genuine, high-quality alternate route.

- Ⓐ 1. **Amount of coursework.** The state should ensure that the number of credit hours it either requires or allows should be manageable for the new teacher. Anything more than 12 credit hours of coursework (in which a teacher is required to physically attend a lecture or seminar) in the first year may be counterproductive, placing too great a burden on the new teacher. This calculation is premised on no more than 6 credit hours in the summer, 3 credit hours in the fall and 3 credit hours in the spring.
- Ⓐ 2. **Program length.** The alternate route program should be no longer than two years in length, at which time the new teacher should be eligible for a standard certificate.
- Ⓐ 3. **Relevant coursework.** Any coursework requirements should target the *immediate* instructional needs of the new teacher (e.g., seminars with other grade-level teachers, mentoring, training in a particular curriculum, reading instruction, and classroom management techniques).
- Ⓐ 4. **New teacher support.** The state should ensure that candidates have an opportunity to practice teach in a summer training program. Alternatively, the state can provide an intensive mentoring experience, beginning with a trained mentor assigned full-time to the new teacher for the first critical weeks of school, and gradually reducing the amount of time. The state should only support induction strategies *that can be effective even in a poorly managed school*: intensive mentoring; seminars appropriate to grade level or subject area; a reduced teaching load; and frequent release time to observe other teachers.
- Ⓐ 5. **Broad usage.** The state should not treat the alternate route as a program of “last resort,” restricting the availability of alternate routes to certain geographic areas, grades, or subject areas.

Figure 50 Genuine Alternatives  
*How States are Faring*



⑤ 6. **Diversity of providers.** The state should allow districts and nonprofit organizations other than institutions of higher education to operate programs. To encourage diversity, states should articulate any training requirements in terms of both credit hours and clock hours.

The three remaining features, described in the next goal, address the criteria that should be considered in accepting individuals into a high-quality alternate route program: 7. **Evidence of strong academic performance;** 8. **Verification of subject matter knowledge;** and 9. **Availability of “test-out” options to meet standards.**

#### RATIONALE

- See appendix for detailed rationale.
- The program must provide practical, meaningful preparation that is sensitive to the stress level of the new teacher.

#### SUPPORTING RESEARCH

- Research citations to support this goal are available at [www.nctq.org/stpy/citations](http://www.nctq.org/stpy/citations).

Figure 51 Genuine Alternatives

*What distinguishes a genuine alternate route from other postbaccalaureate paths into the teaching profession?*

	<b>Genuine Alternate Route</b>	<b>Postbaccalaureate Traditional Route</b>	<b>Classic Emergency Licensure</b>
<b>Premise</b>	Candidates with strong academic backgrounds begin teaching while completing streamlined preparation program.	Candidates pursue traditional preparation program at the graduate rather than undergraduate level.	Virtually any candidate is given a temporary license to teach; standard certification requirements must be fulfilled to convert it to a regular license.
<b>Selectivity</b>	Teacher provides evidence of above average academic performance (e.g., 2.75 or 3.0 GPA)—with some flexibility for mid-career applicants.	Teacher has a 2.5 GPA.	Teacher need not provide any evidence of previous academic performance.
<b>Subject matter knowledge</b>	Teacher can demonstrate subject matter knowledge on test.	Teacher has a major in the subject; may have to pass test.	Teacher need not have major, college degree, or pass test until program completion.
<b>Annual course requirements</b>	Requires no more than one course at a time during school year (roughly 12 credits per year, exclusive of mentoring credits).	15 credits per year on average.	Requirements vary with teacher.
<b>Cap on coursework</b>	Offers accelerated study (e.g., would not exceed 6 courses, exclusive of any credit for mentoring, over duration of program).	30 credits total on average.	Unlimited—depends on individual.
<b>Types of courses required</b>	Relevant to immediate needs of teacher—such as reading instruction; seminars grouped by grade or content.	Full program of professional study.	Full program of professional study and any missing content coursework.
<b>Program length</b>	Earns standard certificate after two years.	Earns standard certificate after two years.	Awards standard certificate when coursework is completed; maximum generally set for number of years emergency license is valid.
<b>New teacher support</b>	Has practice-teaching opportunity and/or strong induction program—does not require teacher to quit previous job before summer.	Has practice-teaching and/or strong induction—may require teacher to quit previous job before summer.	Goes through standard district induction program.
<b>Provider diversity</b>	Districts, nonprofit providers, and IHE can operate programs; coursework need not be credit bearing.	Only IHE.	Only IHE.
<b>Use</b>	State actively encourages districts to use the route.	State actively encourages districts to use the route.	State terms route “source of last resort.”

## Area 5: Goal A – Idaho Analysis

### State Partly Meets Goal

#### **ANALYSIS**

Idaho classifies the **Content Specialist** route, the **Computer-Based Alternative Route to Certification**, and the **Paraeducator to Teacher Program** as alternate routes to certification. The sound structure of the Computer-Based Alternative Route to Certification would qualify it as a genuine alternate route, but it is compromised by low admissions standards (see Goal 5-B). While valid routes to certification, the Content Specialist Route and Paraeducator to Teacher Program are not genuine alternate routes.

Candidates in the Content Specialist route must complete a considerable pre-service program of eight to 16 weeks of accelerated professional coursework before they begin to teach. During this time, candidates attend a college or university to take the coursework. Idaho does not specify the type or amount of coursework candidates must complete, only requiring that courses be aligned with state's teaching standards. Instead, the coursework requirements are determined by a consortium of representatives from an institute of higher education (IHE) and the school district—a problematic arrangement, as IHEs have no particular incentive to limit coursework. Candidates may complete any unfinished coursework after the pre-service program is over, while they teach.

Candidates in the Computer-Based Alternative Route to Certification pursue certification through the American Board for Certification of Teacher Excellence (ABCTE). There are no coursework requirements. Instead, candidates must pass exams in professional teaching knowledge and subject-area knowledge. The state allows any district to use the ABCTE route.

Candidates in the Paraeducator to Teacher Program must complete an unspecified amount of coursework to earn certification. This route is only for paraprofessionals with associate's degrees and is not aimed at college graduates.

Both the Paraeducator to Teacher route and the Computer-Based Alternative Route to Certification are available to any district for teachers in most major subject areas.

In the area of new teacher support, candidates in all routes participate in a two-year mentoring program; however, the state does not specify the level of support the mentor is to provide.

The state also does not classify credit hours as clock hours in its routes that require coursework, thus eliminating the ability for districts and other nonprofits to operate their own programs. Candidates in all routes are eligible to receive full certification within three years; this is too long.

#### **SUPPORTING RESEARCH**

<http://adm.idaho.gov/adminrules/rules/idapa08/08index.htm>

## RECOMMENDATION

Idaho meets this goal in part. The state may want to provide more specific guidelines about the type of coursework that will contribute the most value with the least burden. Alternatively, the state can keep program designs more flexible by regularly reviewing coursework or professional development requirements of individual programs. Such courses might include grade- or subject-level seminars; methodology in the content area; classroom management; assessment; and for elementary teachers, scientifically based early reading instruction. Simply mandating coursework without specifying the purpose can inadvertently send the wrong message to program providers—that “anything goes” as long as credits are granted. However constructive, any course that is not fundamentally practical and immediately necessary should be eliminated as a requirement.

The state should also shore up its new teacher support, utilizing strategies that will work even in underperforming and poorly managed schools. Effective strategies, even in poorly managed schools, include practice teaching to similar populations prior to starting to teach in the classroom, intensive mentoring with full classroom support in the first few weeks or month of school, a reduced teaching load, and relief time to allow new teachers to observe experienced teachers during each school day. Idaho might consider New York’s policy of requiring daily mentoring for new teachers during their first eight weeks in the classroom (see Transition B route).

Finally, Idaho should allow candidates to earn full certification within two years and empower school districts and nonprofits to operate their own programs.

## IDAHO RESPONSE

Idaho was helpful in providing NCTQ with the facts necessary for our analysis.

**Figure 52** Genuine Alternatives  
*Does IDAHO Ensure Programs Provide a Genuine Alternate Route to Certification?*

Amount of coursework	YES
Program length	NO
Relevant coursework	YES
New teacher support	NO
Versatility of providers	NO
Broad usage	YES
Verification of subject matter knowledge	NO
Prerequisite of strong academic performance	NO
Availability of test out options	NO

## BEST PRACTICE

Although all have areas that could use some improvement, **Arkansas, Connecticut, Georgia, Kentucky, Louisiana, and Maryland** all offer structurally sound alternate routes to teacher certification.

### Food for Thought

State run programs are not optimal.

► [See appendix for entire food for thought.](#)

### Figure 53 Genuine Alternatives

*How Many States Really Offer Alternate Routes into Teaching?*

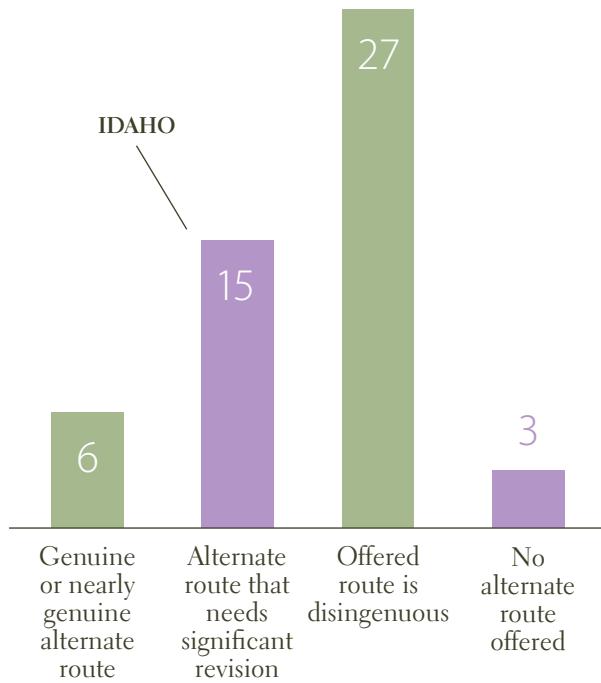


Figure 54 Genuine Alternatives  
*Are States Really Offering Alternate Routes into Teaching?*

	Genuine or nearly genuine alternate route	Alternate route that needs significant revision	Offered route is disingenuous	No alternate route offered
Alabama	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Alaska	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Arizona	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Arkansas	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
California	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Colorado	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Connecticut	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Delaware	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
District of Columbia	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Florida	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Georgia	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Hawaii	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
<b>IDAHO</b>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Illinois	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Indiana	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Iowa	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Kansas	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Kentucky	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Louisiana	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Maine	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Maryland	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Massachusetts	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Michigan	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Minnesota	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Mississippi	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Missouri	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Montana	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Nebraska	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Nevada	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
New Hampshire	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
New Jersey	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
New Mexico	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
New York	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
North Carolina	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
North Dakota	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Ohio	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Oklahoma	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Oregon	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Pennsylvania	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Rhode Island	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
South Carolina	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
South Dakota	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Tennessee	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Texas	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Utah	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Vermont	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Virginia	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
Washington	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>
West Virginia	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Wisconsin	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>
Wyoming	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input type="checkbox"/>	<input checked="" type="checkbox"/>

Figure 55 Genuine Alternatives  
*Are States Curbing Excessive Coursework Requirements?*

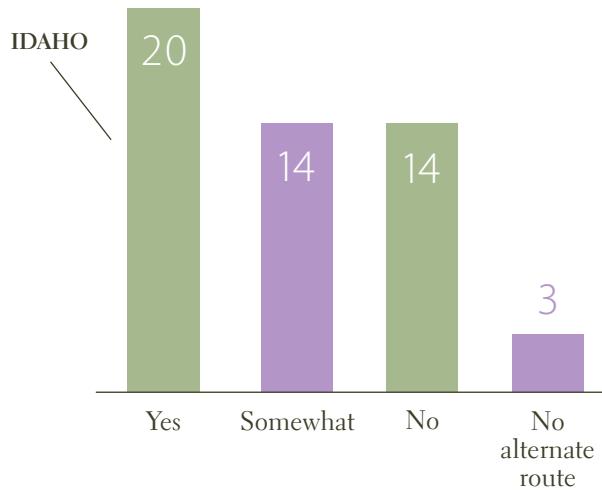
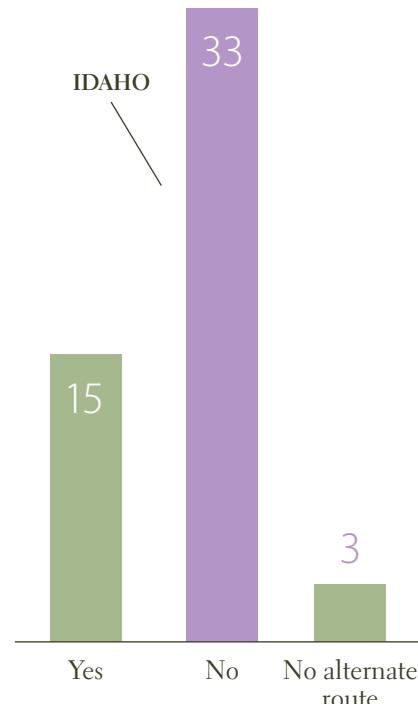


Figure 56 Genuine Alternatives  
*Are States Requiring Mentoring of High Quality and Intensity?*



## Ⓐ Area 5: Goal B – Limiting Alternate Routes to Teachers with Strong Credentials

The state should require all of its alternate route programs to be both academically selective and accommodating to the nontraditional candidate.

### GOAL COMPONENTS

- ⌚ With some accommodation for work experience, alternate route programs should screen candidates for academic ability, such as a 2.75 overall college grade point average (GPA).
- ⌚ All candidates, including elementary candidates and candidates who have a major in their intended subject area, should be required to pass a subject matter test.
- ⌚ A candidate lacking a major in the intended subject area should be able to demonstrate sufficient subject matter knowledge by passing a test of sufficient rigor.

### RATIONALE

- See appendix for detailed rationale.
- Alternate route teachers need the leg up of a strong academic background.
- What should be the state's minimum academic standard?
- Multiple ways for assessing competency are needed for the nontraditional candidate.

### SUPPORTING RESEARCH

- Research citations to support this goal are available at [www.nctq.org/stpy/citations](http://www.nctq.org/stpy/citations).

Ⓐ Goals with this icon are especially important for attracting science and mathematics teachers.

Figure 57  
Limiting Alternate Routes to Teachers with Strong Credentials  
*How States are Faring*



## Area 5: Goal B – Idaho Analysis

### State Partly Meets Goal

#### **ANALYSIS**

While the structure of Idaho's alternate route is relatively sound (see Goal 5-A), its admissions standards are too low, thereby lessening the state's capacity to advance teacher quality.

Applicants are not required to provide any evidence of their own academic performance, such as a minimum college GPA, which reflects a seriousness of purpose on the part of the candidate, particularly in the context of the selectivity of the college.

With two exceptions (those candidates coming through Idaho's American Board for Certification of Teacher Excellence (ABCTE) route and candidates in hard-to-staff areas), candidates need not pass a subject-area test. Teachers in the ABCTE route must pass tests of professional knowledge and subject area knowledge. Only candidates staffing hard-to-staff subject areas must pass a Praxis II subject-area test. However, the state has set egregiously low passing scores for these tests, among the lowest in the country, and therefore they are unlikely to be indicative of academic merit. For example, a math teacher need only achieve a score of 119 on the Praxis II math test, which is well below the score of 156 required in Colorado.

Also, Idaho requires a major and does not allow candidates to test out of this requirement.

To its credit, Idaho has demonstrated significant flexibility by its approval of the ABCTE route to certification.

#### **RECOMMENDATION**

Idaho meets this goal in part. Idaho should establish standards for candidates' academic background. The standard should be higher than what is required of traditional teacher candidates, typically a 2.5 GPA. The original concept behind the alternate route into teaching is that the nontraditional candidate is able to concentrate on acquiring professional knowledge and skills because he or she has demonstrated strong subject-area knowledge and/or an above-average academic background. Some accommodation in this standard is appropriate for career-changers.

All alternate route candidates should be required to pass a subject-area test. These tests provide a uniform, objective standard by which to judge subject-matter competency. Idaho should also assess the current levels it has set for passing these tests so that they are meaningful indicators.

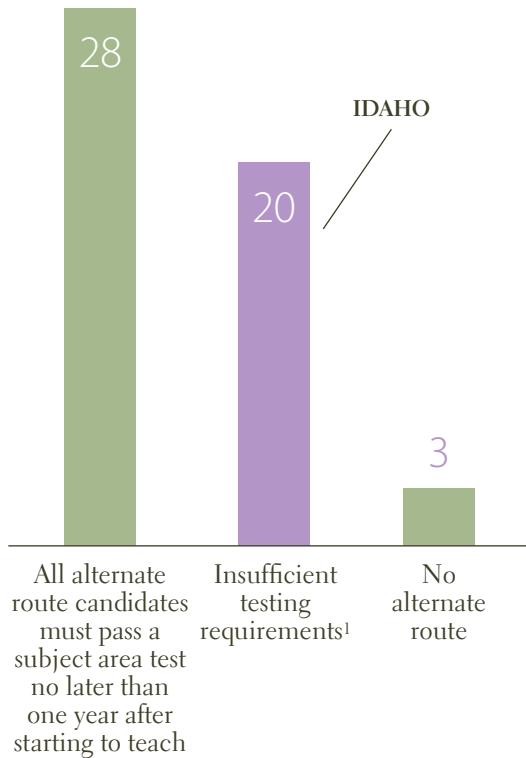
#### **IDAHO RESPONSE**

Idaho was helpful in providing NCTQ with the facts necessary for our analysis.

## BEST PRACTICE

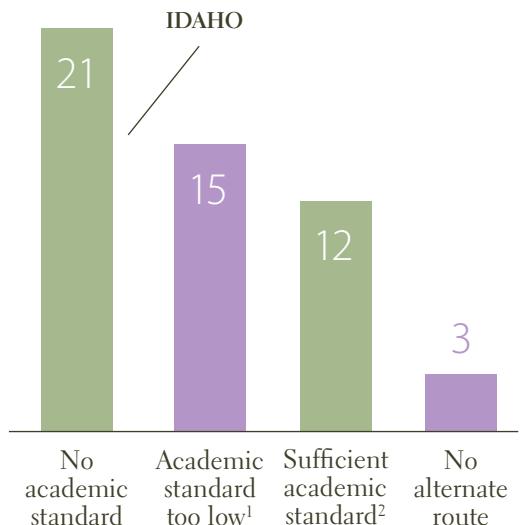
Arizona meets three admission criteria for a quality alternate route: 1) a requirement that all candidates pass a subject-area test; 2) flexibility built into its policy that respects nontraditional candidates' diverse backgrounds; and 3) some evidence from candidates of good academic performance.

Figure 58  
Limiting Alternate Routes to Teachers  
with Strong Credentials  
*Are States Ensuring that Alternate Route  
Teachers Have Subject Matter Knowledge?*



<sup>1</sup> State does not require subject area test at all; or exempts some candidates from having to take it; or does not require candidate to pass test until program has been completed.

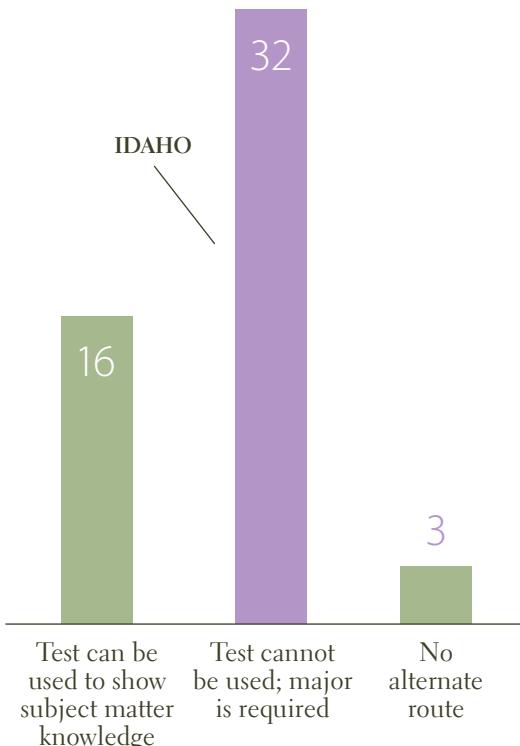
Figure 59  
Limiting Alternate Routes to Teachers  
with Strong Credentials  
*Are States Requiring Alternate Route Programs  
to be Selective?*



<sup>1</sup> State sets a primary standard of a minimum 2.5 GPA, about the same expected of a traditional candidate entering four-year teacher preparation program.

<sup>2</sup> State sets primary academic standard above a 2.5 GPA, acknowledging the need of the nontraditional candidate on fast track to have above average academic credentials.

Figure 60  
Limiting Alternate Routes to Teachers  
with Strong Credentials  
*Do States Accommodate the Nontraditional  
Background of Alternate Route Candidates?*



## Area 5: Goal C – Program Accountability

The state should hold alternate route programs accountable for the performance of their teachers.

### GOAL COMPONENTS

- ⌚ The state should collect the following performance data to hold alternate route programs accountable:
  - The average raw score of each program's teachers on state licensing tests (basic skills, subject matter, professional.);
  - Evaluation results from first and/or second year of teaching and percentage of teachers eligible for standard certificates and tenure;
  - Academic achievement gains of graduates' students averaged over the first three years of teaching; and
  - Five-year retention rate of graduates in the teaching profession.
- ⌚ The state should also establish the minimum standard of performance for each of these categories of data. Programs must be held accountable for meeting these standards and the state, after due process, should shut down programs that do not do so.
- ⌚ The state should produce an annual report card, published on the state's website, which shows all of the data that the state collects on individual teacher preparation programs.
- ⌚ The state can also collect evidence that the program limits admission to certification areas that produce too many teachers, that it trains teachers in high-shortage areas, and about the number of its graduates who take jobs in-state, out-of-state, or who do not enter the profession. It may be unwise to use these data as accountability measures.

### RATIONALE

- See appendix for detailed rationale.
- Alternate route programs should show they consistently produce effective teachers.

### SUPPORTING RESEARCH

- Research citations to support this goal are available at [www.nctq.org/stpy/citations](http://www.nctq.org/stpy/citations).

Figure 61 Program Accountability  
*How States are Faring*



## Area 5: Goal C – Idaho Analysis

### State Does Not Meet Goal

#### **ANALYSIS**

Idaho does not collect any of the recommended performance data from its alternate route programs.

The state has not set any performance standards based on any measurable outcomes that alternate route programs must meet in order to receive state approval.

The state does not post any data online, which would allow the public and prospective teachers to review and compare program performance.

#### **RECOMMENDATION**

Idaho does not meet this goal. The state should establish precise standards for program performance, make objective outcomes the basis of its ongoing approval of alternate route programs, and post an annual report card on its website that details the data it collects for all programs, both alternate and traditional.

#### **IDAHO RESPONSE**

Idaho was helpful in providing NCTQ with the facts necessary for our analysis.

**Figure 62 Program Accountability**  
*What Measures is IDAHO Collecting on Alternate Route Programs?*

Average raw scores on licensing tests	<b>NO</b>
Satisfaction ratings from schools	<b>NO</b>
Evaluation results for program graduates	<b>NO</b>
Student learning gains	<b>NO</b>
Teacher retention rates	<b>NO</b>

 **BEST PRACTICE**

While no state earns a Best Practice designation in this goal, **Kentucky** comes the closest.

## Ⓐ Area 5: Goal D – Interstate Portability

The state should treat out-of-state teachers who completed an approved alternate route program no differently than out-of-state teachers who completed a traditional program.

### GOAL COMPONENTS

- ⌚ The state should accord the same license to an experienced teacher who was prepared in an alternate route as it accords an experienced teacher prepared in a traditional teacher preparation program.
- ⌚ The terms under which the state offers licensure reciprocity to teachers who completed a program but who have not yet taught three years should be no different for the teacher prepared in an alternate route as the teacher prepared in a traditional route.

### RATIONALE

- ▶ See appendix for detailed rationale.
- States can embrace portability without lowering standards.
- Using transcript analysis to judge teacher competency provides little value.

### SUPPORTING RESEARCH

- ▶ Research citations to support this goal are available at [www.nctq.org/stpy/citations](http://www.nctq.org/stpy/citations).

Figure 63 Interstate Portability  
*How States are Faring*



## Area 5: Goal D – Idaho Analysis

### State Does Not Meet Goal

#### **ANALYSIS**

Idaho is unwilling to accept out-of-state teachers, with or without teaching experience, who were prepared in an alternate route program. The state would have these teachers needlessly redo requirements that had been fulfilled and resulted in licensure in another state. State officials in Idaho reported that teachers must submit their transcript for review by a state official, who then determines what additional coursework must be taken. They further acknowledged that the state does not generally provide reciprocity to teachers who completed an alternate route. In a NCTQ survey of personnel specialists, three district specialists reported that the state typically requires an out-of-state alternate route teacher with three years experience to make up any missing professional coursework. Several Idaho districts provided responses to a NCTQ survey of personnel specialists. Three district specialists three years experience to make up any missing professional coursework. Another specialist disagreed.

Conflicting with its practice of transcript analysis, Idaho has signed two provisions of a national agreement (the “NASDTEC Interstate Agreement”) that are intended to signal a state’s receptivity to licensure reciprocity for alternate route teachers. This agreement, however, does not prohibit states from interpreting for themselves what constitutes a reciprocal agreement, meaning that a number of states that have signed this agreement still engage in transcript analysis, including Idaho.

#### **RECOMMENDATION**

Idaho does not meet this goal. Foremost, the state needs a more coherent policy.

The state’s policy should recognize a teacher’s experience, employability and effectiveness. Other licensed professions rely on evidence of 1) having completed an approved or accredited preparation track; 2) passing required tests; and 3) good standing in the profession.

The state should develop a way to accommodate less experienced teachers who have completed their preparation program, but who have not yet earned standard certification. Provided that a teacher can demonstrate evidence of program completion, has satisfactory evaluations, and can meet the state’s testing requirements, the state should make an interim certificate available. The certificate should be unconditional, explicitly ruling out requirements to repeat some, most, or all of a preparation program. The state may want to look at Georgia’s model provision in this area, which waives another state’s experience requirement if it was the only factor that prevented a teacher from earning a standard license in that state.

State policies that discriminate against teachers who were prepared in an alternate route are not supported by any evidence. In fact, a substantial body of research has failed to discern differences in effectiveness between alternate and traditional route teachers.

States that cite the evidence of uneven quality of alternate route programs are ignoring the similarly uneven quality of traditional teacher preparation programs. Judging the quality of a candidate on the basis of what course titles are listed on a transcript is unlikely to yield any meaningful data as to the quality of the preparation or if the teacher found other ways to acquire the knowledge and skills needed.

#### **IDAHO RESPONSE**

Idaho was helpful in providing NCTQ with facts that enhanced our analysis.

Figure 64 Interstate Portability  
*Does IDAHO Offer Reciprocity to Alternate Route Teachers without a lot of Strings Attached?*

Teachers with 3 or more years of experience	NO
Teachers with less than 3 years of experience	NO



### Food for Thought

#### Barring the National Teacher of the Year.

► [See appendix for entire food for thought.](#)

*"I taught middle school math for 8 years in the District of Columbia, coming in through Teach For America. I love teaching math and my students made dramatic gains on our state test. And in 2005 I was named the National Teacher of the Year. But, because I didn't major in math, I'm not employable "as is" in many states. I'd be more than happy to take a test to demonstrate my math knowledge, but most states don't allow this."*

*- Jason Kamras, Teacher*

### BEST PRACTICE

Georgia's policies on teachers prepared through an alternate route are the most fair. Georgia offers a standard license to a teacher who completed a program but who did not yet have a standard license in the previous state, provided the only reason that prevented the teacher from earning the license was time served.



## Area 6: Goal A – Special Education Teacher Preparation

The state should articulate the professional knowledge needed by the special education teacher and monitor teacher preparation programs for efficiency of delivery.

### GOAL COMPONENTS

- ⌚ Standards for special education teachers need to be explicit and research based. It should not be possible for programs to train teachers in *any* method, strategy or assessment and still meet the state standards.
- ⌚ The standards should be specific enough to drive the instruction of teacher preparation programs and inform teacher candidates of what they need to know in order to become licensed teachers.
- ⌚ The standards should be testable.
- ⌚ States should adopt policies that ensure efficient delivery of professional coursework and a corresponding balance between academic and professional coursework. Absent formal policies, the state can still do much to achieve this balance.

### RATIONALE

- See appendix for detailed rationale.
- Standards need to define the professional knowledge teachers must have to work with students with disabilities.
- Overly prescriptive teacher preparation programs may be exacerbating state teacher shortages in special education.
- The state needs to establish a review cycle for its own coursework requirements and/or teaching standards.
- The state should monitor the number of courses, mandated or not.

### SUPPORTING RESEARCH

- Research citations to support this goal are available at [www.nctq.org/stpy/citations](http://www.nctq.org/stpy/citations).

Figure 65  
Special Education Teacher Preparation  
*How States are Faring*



## Area 6: Goal A – Idaho Analysis

### State Does Not Meet Goal

#### **ANALYSIS**

Idaho requires special education teacher candidates to complete an approved program that is premised on the state’s teaching standards rather than a fixed amount of professional coursework. This standards-based approach offers approved programs and their students greater flexibility than fixed course requirements, but does not ensure that programs will provide an efficient program of study.

Idaho’s state standards for the preparation of special education teachers do not adequately address the four critical areas that all teachers must know: historical and legal foundations of special education, instruction, behavior management, and student assessment. Although the standards do address instruction, they are short on specifics. For example, the instructional planning standard requiring that the “teacher understands curricular and instructional practices used in the development of academic, social language, motor cognitive and affective skills for students with disabilities” does not address key areas of instruction. Furthermore, the standards include no discussion of research-based strategies, leaving it to individual programs to determine which content is covered in topic areas. The standards also do not provide enough structure to form the basis of an assessment to determine teacher competency.

States using a standards-based approach must monitor the number of credit hours that programs require, if only to ensure that they are delivering content efficiently, eliminating outdated or redundant courses. Idaho’s coursework requirements for special education teachers are not excessively burdensome: Special education teacher candidates must complete 30 credit hours of special education coursework. However, by only articulating minimum coursework requirements, the state gives individual programs free rein to decide how much coursework to require, with no check on their tendency to require increasing amounts of professional coursework. For example, at the University of Idaho, special education teacher candidates must complete 82 to 87 credit hours of professional coursework, the equivalent of almost three majors. While more extensive requirements may be appropriate for teachers preparing to work with students with severe disabilities, these requirements seem excessive for general special education preparation and may discourage prospective teachers from entering the field.

#### **SUPPORTING RESEARCH**

IDAPA 08, Title 02, Chapter 02: Rule 028.01

[http://w2.byuh.edu/catalog/Academic\\_Department\\_and\\_Degrees/Special\\_Education.php#SE](http://w2.byuh.edu/catalog/Academic_Department_and_Degrees/Special_Education.php#SE)

#### **RECOMMENDATION**

Idaho does not meet this goal. The state should adopt standards that clearly address the knowledge and skills required of new special education teachers. In addition, the state should regularly audit its own professional requirements for approved programs and work with them to streamline coursework delivery and reduce redundant coursework.

#### **IDAHO RESPONSE**

Although the state did not have the opportunity to review our analysis of its standards, Idaho recognized the factual accuracy of other parts of our analysis.

## BEST PRACTICE

While no state fully meets this goal, **Virginia** comes closest. Virginia's standards for special education teachers are explicit and focus on the key areas for providing effective instruction to students with disabilities. In addition, Virginia's policy allows for flexibility while still providing proper guidance to teacher preparation programs regarding the role of professional coursework in special education teacher preparation.

### BEST PRACTICE CITATION

8 VAC 20-21-170, .430

<http://www.pen.k12.va.us/VDOE/newvdoe/regulation.pdf>

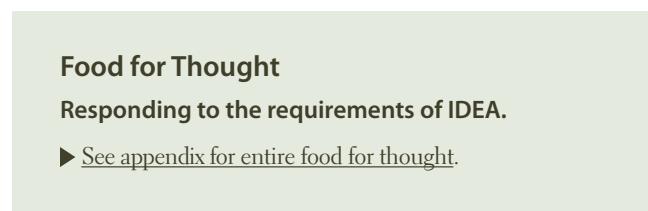


Figure 66 Special Education Teacher Preparation  
*Do States Articulate the Professional Knowledge  
 Needed by Special Education Teachers?*

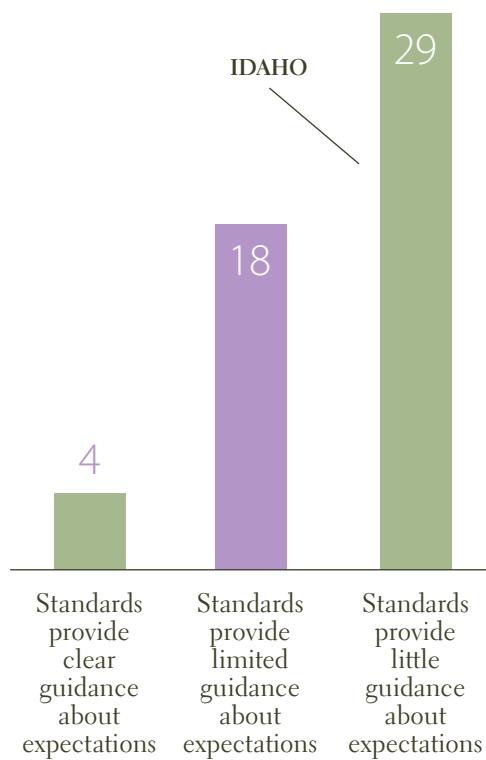
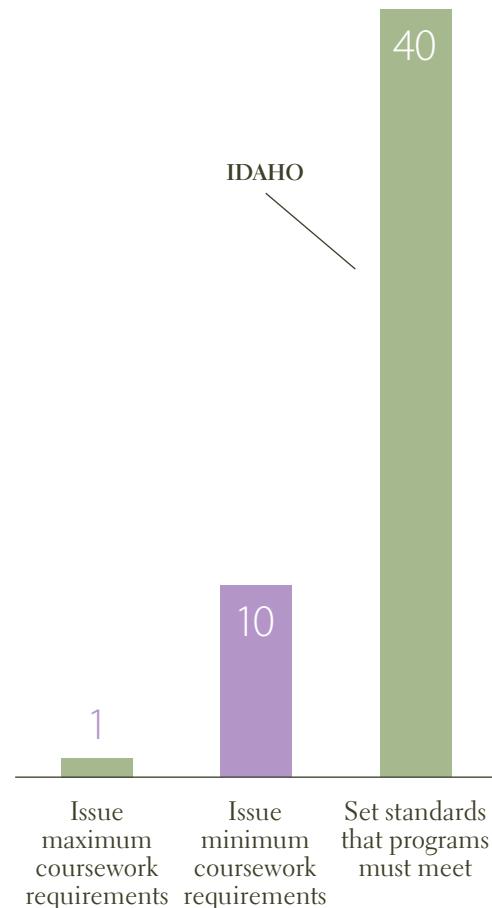


Figure 67 Special Education Teacher Preparation  
*How do States Regulate Teacher Prep Programs'  
 Course of Study?*



## Area 6: Goal B – Elementary Special Education Teachers

The state should require that teacher preparation programs provide a broad liberal arts program of study to elementary special education candidates.

### GOAL COMPONENTS

- >All elementary education candidates should have preparation in five content areas: math, science, English, social studies and fine arts.
- States should ensure that the coursework elementary special education teachers take is relevant to what is taught in the Pre-K through grade six classroom.

### RATIONALE

- See appendix for detailed rationale.
- All teachers, including special education teachers, teach content, and therefore need relevant coursework.
- Test-out options: there is no sense in making teachers take coursework when they have already mastered the material.

### SUPPORTING RESEARCH

- Research citations to support this goal are available at [www.nctq.org/stpy/citations](http://www.nctq.org/stpy/citations).

Figure 68  
Elementary Special Education Teachers  
*How States are Faring*



## Area 6: Goal B – Idaho Analysis

### State Does Not Meet Goal

#### **ANALYSIS**

Idaho does not require elementary special education teacher candidates to receive any preparation in elementary subject areas.

Further, Idaho exempts elementary special education teachers from having to take its elementary subject-area licensing test.

#### **SUPPORTING RESEARCH**

<http://www.sde.state.id.us/certification/documents/HQTIDpositionstatement082404.pdf>

#### **RECOMMENDATION**

Idaho does not meet this goal. Goal 1-B describes the steps that Idaho should take to improve its requirements. Although there are many competing demands on the program of study for special education teachers, the state should not compromise on the fundamental principle that all children deserve teachers who are qualified in every respect. States not requiring special education teachers to be well trained in academic subject matter are shortchanging special education students, who deserve the opportunity to learn grade-level content.

Importantly, Idaho should not exempt special education teachers from the state's subject-area licensing tests.

#### **IDAHO RESPONSE**

Idaho was helpful in providing NCTQ with facts that enhanced our analysis. The state added that it was examining the issue of how to ensure that special education teachers receive adequate content training.

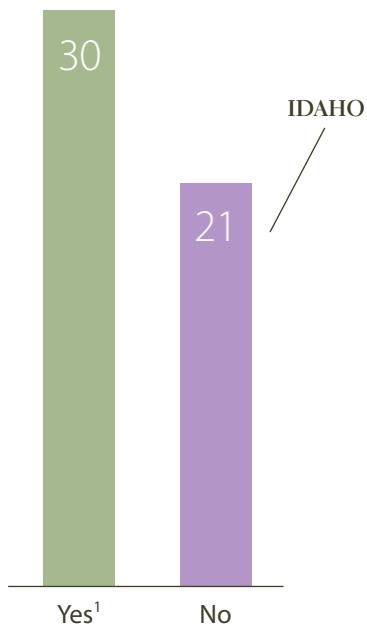
#### **LAST WORD**

NCTQ urges Idaho, in examining this issue, to consider the importance of ensuring that all elementary special education teachers have broad content knowledge relevant to PK-6 teaching.

## BEST PRACTICE

Massachusetts requires elementary special education teacher candidates to complete the same coursework (and pass the same test) as other elementary candidates. They must complete 36 credit hours of arts and sciences coursework including: composition, American literature, world literature, U.S. history, world history, geography, economics, U.S. government, child development, science laboratory work and appropriate math and science coursework.

Figure 69 Elementary Special Education Teachers  
*Do States Require Any Subject-Matter Preparation?*



<sup>1</sup> State requires either subject-matter coursework or a subject-matter test.



*"I have a degree in general education and special education. If I specialized in just special education, I would not have the background in content-area subjects that was part of the general ed program."*

*- Lisa McSherry, Teacher*

## Area 6: Goal C – Secondary Special Education Teachers

The state should require that teacher preparation programs graduate secondary special education teacher candidates who are “highly qualified” in at least two subjects.

### GOAL COMPONENTS

- ⌚ The most efficient route to becoming adequately prepared to teach multiple subjects may be for teacher candidates to earn the equivalent of two subject-area minors and pass tests in those areas.
- ⌚ Preparation should also include broad coursework in remaining core subject areas, covering topics relevant to PK-12 teaching. Secondary special education teacher candidates would therefore need to become highly qualified in as few additional subject areas as possible upon completion of a teacher preparation program (see Goal 6-D).

### RATIONALE

- See appendix for detailed rationale.
- Conflicting language in IDEA and NCLB has led to much confusion.
- Secondary special education teachers need to graduate highly qualified in two subject areas.

### SUPPORTING RESEARCH

- Research citations to support this goal are available at [www.nctq.org/stpy/citations](http://www.nctq.org/stpy/citations).

**Figure 70**  
Secondary Special Education Teachers  
*How States are Faring*



## Area 6: Goal C – Idaho Analysis

### State Partly Meets Goal

#### **ANALYSIS**

Idaho's current policies are likely to ensure that secondary special education teachers will be highly qualified in one core area upon completion of an approved program. Idaho requires special education teachers to pass two state-approved assessments in special education and to meet content knowledge requirements for a secondary endorsement. The state's subject matter coursework requirements for all middle and high school teachers, including special education teachers, are adequate; in fact, they may be unnecessarily extensive. All new secondary teachers in Idaho are required to pass a subject matter test, the Praxis II, in order to attain licensure.

Idaho, however, does not require general education coursework; such requirements can lay the foundation that will help secondary special education candidates to become qualified to teach in multiple core subject areas (see Goal 1-B).

#### **SUPPORTING RESEARCH**

<http://www.sde.state.id.us/certification/documents/HQTIDpositionstatement082404.pdf>

#### **RECOMMENDATION**

Idaho meets this goal in part. The state should consider requiring that new secondary special education teachers be highly qualified in two core academic areas upon completion of a teacher preparation program. Idaho can use a combination of coursework and testing in order to meet this goal.

#### **IDAHO RESPONSE**

Idaho recognized the factual accuracy of our analysis.



"I've taught special education for 7 years. I know the subjects I'm teaching. I would be happy to take exams to prove it. Instead, it appears they want me to practically earn another bachelor's degree. I can't afford it, I don't need it and it certainly won't help my students learn"

- Maria Lardas, Teacher

### Food for Thought

One model for how an institution might prepare special education teacher candidates.

► See appendix for entire food for thought.

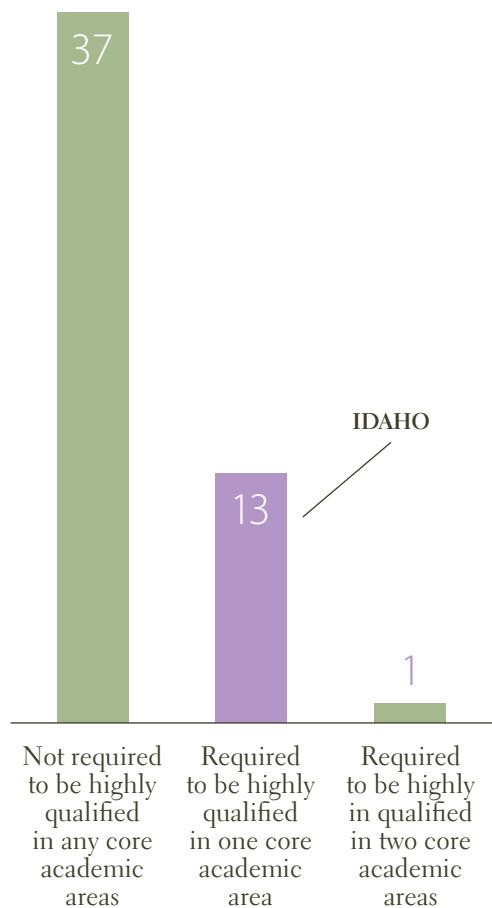
### BEST PRACTICE

While no state fully meets this goal, Michigan and New Jersey come closest. Michigan requires secondary special education teachers to have dual certification. As part of their certification, all secondary teacher candidates must complete a major in the subject area they intend to teach and a minor in another area. Teachers are eligible to be certified to teach in both fields if they pass the appropriate subject-matter tests. New Jersey is phasing in a new special education certificate that requires a grade and subject matter-appropriate endorsement. New Jersey requires middle school teacher candidates to complete a major in one area and a minor in each additional teaching area; it requires high school teacher candidates to complete a major or the equivalent in their intended teaching area. All new secondary teachers are also required to pass a subject-area test in order to attain licensure.

#### BEST PRACTICE CITATION

Teacher Certification Codes R. 390.1122, -27

Figure 71 Secondary Special Education Teachers  
*What do States Require of New Teachers Upon Program Completion?*



## Area 6: Goal D – Special Education Teachers and HQT

The state should customize a “HOUSSE” route for new secondary special education teachers to help them achieve highly qualified status in all the subjects they teach.

### GOAL COMPONENTS

- ⌚ The state should offer a customized High Objective Uniform State System of Evaluation (HOUSSE) route for new secondary special education teachers who may find the existing state HOUSSE route a mismatch.
- ⌚ This unique route should be focused only on increasing teacher subject matter knowledge, not pedagogical skills.

### RATIONALE

- ▶ See appendix for detailed rationale.
- The needs of special education teachers, new or veteran, are different from most other teachers needing to earn highly qualified status.
- The special education HOUSSE route needs to be clear and meaningful.

### SUPPORTING RESEARCH

- ▶ Research citations to support this goal are available at [www.nctq.org/stpy/citations](http://www.nctq.org/stpy/citations).

Figure 72  
Special Education Teachers and HQT  
*How States are Faring*



## Area 6: Goal D – Idaho Analysis

### State Does Not Meet Goal

#### **ANALYSIS**

Idaho does not currently have a separate HOUSSE route for new secondary special education teachers.

#### **RECOMMENDATION**

Idaho does not meet this goal. The state should create a route uniquely tailored for new secondary special education teachers. They need to be able to teach one, two, three and sometimes four different subjects at a more advanced level than what is required of elementary special education teachers. Although ideally these teachers will graduate with highly qualified status in two core areas (see Goal 6-C), the state should provide a practical and meaningful way for them to achieve highly qualified status in all remaining core subjects once they are in the classroom.

States' HOUSSE routes for veteran teachers are inappropriate for meeting this goal as they typically award significant points for teaching experience, professional development, and other qualifications that new teachers lack. Moreover, these options are insufficient for ensuring adequate content knowledge.

#### **IDAHO RESPONSE**

Idaho recognized the factual accuracy of our analysis and added that the state is currently reviewing its HOUSSE policies.

 **BEST PRACTICE**

Unfortunately, NCTQ cannot highlight any state's policy in this area.

**Food for Thought**

**An illustration of the problems that a new special education teacher faces.**

► [See appendix for entire food for thought](#)

# Appendix

## AREA 1: GOAL A

### Equitable Distribution

#### Rationale

##### **States need to report data at the level of the individual school.**

Only by achieving greater stability in the staffing of individual schools can school districts hope to achieve the nation's goal of more equitable distribution of teacher quality. A strong reporting system reflecting data on teacher attrition, teacher absenteeism, and teacher credentials can lend much-needed transparency to those factors that contribute to staffing instability and inequity.

The lack of such data feeds a misconception that all high-poverty schools are similarly unable to retain staff because of their socioeconomic and racial status. If collected and disaggregated to the level of the individual school, however, such data could shift the focus of districts and states toward the quality of leadership at the school level and away from the notion that instability and inequity are simply the unavoidable consequences of poverty and race. The truth is that there are huge variations in staff stability among schools with similar numbers of poor and/or minority children. School culture, largely determined by school leadership, contributes greatly to teachers' morale, which in turn affects teachers' success and student achievement. By revealing these variations between schools facing the same challenges, school leadership can be held accountable—and rewarded when successful.

Within-district comparisons are crucial in order to control for as many elements specific to a district as possible, such as a collective bargaining agreement (or the district's personnel policies) and the amount of resources.

##### **Experience matters a lot at first, but quickly fades in importance.**

Teacher experience matters, but the benefits of experience are in large part accumulated within the first few years of teaching. School districts that try to equalize experience among all schools are overestimating the impact of experience. In other words, there is no reason why a school with many teachers with only three to five years of experience cannot outperform a school with teachers who have an average of 10 to 15 years of experience. That is why NCTQ's recommendations suggest that states focus on indicators of high turnover year to year, not the youth of a staff.

#### **Sweeping policy changes may be needed.**

To achieve the goal of equitable distribution as intended by No Child Left Behind (NCLB), states also need to consider key reforms, addressed in other *Yearbook* goals:

- Remove regulations that permit teachers who have not passed state licensing tests to teach for more than one year (Goal 2-B);
- Remove any compensation restrictions that block districts from paying higher salaries to qualified teachers working in high-poverty schools, including restrictions that block salary differentials for high-shortage subject areas and pay for performance (Goal 3-D);
- Cultivate flexible, high-quality alternate routes that can prepare qualified teachers, especially in high-shortage subject areas, such as math and science (Goals 5-A, 5-B, 5-C); and
- Make it more practical for special education teachers to complete undergraduate training and achieve "highly qualified teacher" status in multiple subjects (Goals 6-A, 6-B, 6-C, 6-D).

#### **Teacher compensation is a critical carrot.**

To the extent that states have a role in local teacher compensation systems, they can also target resources to qualified teachers who agree to serve in Title I schools.

- Many states are currently experimenting with programs to direct existing or newly identified funds to high-poverty schools.
- Almost all states currently provide across-the-board bonuses to National Board-certified teachers, but without factoring in the school environment (see Goal 3-D). Such bonuses or pay differentials could be refashioned to reward National Board teachers who choose to work in high-poverty schools.

▲ [BACK to Area 1: Goal A.](#)

## AREA 1: GOAL B

### Elementary Teacher Preparation

#### Rationale

##### **Elementary teachers need coursework that is relevant to the PK through 6 classroom.**

Currently, many states' policies fail to guarantee that elementary teacher candidates will complete coursework in topics relevant to common topics in elementary grades, specifically topics found in the elementary learning standards.

Even when states specify liberal arts coursework requirements, the regulatory language can be quite broad, alluding only loosely to conceptual approaches such as “quantitative reasoning” or “historical understanding.” Another common but inadequate approach that states take is to specify broad curricular areas like “humanities” or “physical sciences.” A humanities course could be a general overview of world literature—an excellent course for a prospective elementary teacher—but it could also be “Introduction to Film Theory.” Likewise, a physical science course could be an overview of relevant topics in physics, chemistry, and astronomy, or it could focus exclusively on astronomy and fail to prepare a teacher candidate to understand basic concepts in physics. Too few states’ requirements distinguish between the value gained from a survey course in American history, such as “From Colonial Times to the Civil War,” and an American history course such as “Woody Guthrie and Folk Narrative in the Great Depression.”

In addition to the common-sense notion that teachers ought to know the subjects they teach, research supports the benefits to be gained by teachers being broadly educated. Teachers who are more literate—who possess richer vocabularies—are more likely to be effective. In fact, of all the measurable attributes of a teacher, teacher literacy correlates most consistently with student achievement gains. Some states still require that elementary teacher candidates major in elementary education, with no expectation that they be broadly educated. Others have regulatory language that effectively requires the completion of education coursework instead of liberal arts coursework by mandating courses in ‘methods and materials of teaching’ core academic areas, rather than in the areas themselves.

#### **Subject area coursework should be taught by arts and sciences faculty.**

Most states do not explicitly require that subject matter coursework be taught by academics in the field, that is, faculty from a university’s college of arts and sciences. While an education professor who specializes in science education, for instance, is well suited to teach effective methodologies in science instruction, a scholar in science should provide the foundation work in the subject itself.

States cannot leave these decisions entirely in the hands of teacher preparation programs because it can run counter to their financial interest to send teacher candidates to the college of arts and sciences to complete coursework.

#### **Standards-based programs can work when verified by testing.**

Many states no longer prescribe specific courses or credit hours as a condition for teacher candidates to qualify for a license. Instead, they require teacher candidates to complete an approved program that meets the standards set forth by accrediting bodies—the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE) and the Association for Childhood Education International (ACEI)—and leave it at that. The advantage of this “standards-based” approach is that it grants greater flexibility to teacher preparation programs regarding program design.

However, there is also a significant disadvantage: the standards-based approach is far more difficult to monitor or enforce. While some programs do a great job with the flexibility, others do not. Though the ACEI/NCATE standards may provide many benefits, they are too general for states to rely on as a guarantee of adequate subject matter training. For example, ACEI’s standard for “acceptable” knowledge in social studies says that elementary teacher candidates should “Demonstrate knowledge and understanding of the themes, concepts, and modes of inquiry drawn from the social studies that address: (1) culture; (2) time, continuity, and change; (3) people, places, and environment; (4) individual development and identity; (5) individuals, groups, and institutions; (6) power, governance, and authority; (7) production, distribution, and consumption; (8) science, technology, and society; (9) global connections; and (10) ideals and practices.” These broad conceptual themes do very little to articulate the actual knowledge that elementary teacher candidates should possess.

What is the answer? Standards are important, but they are essentially meaningless without strong tests to ensure that teacher candidates have met them. States choosing to take a standards-based approach have not put such tests in place. Verifying that teacher preparation programs are teaching to the standards requires an exhaustive review process of matching every standard with something that is taught in a course. This approach is neither practical nor efficient. Standards, absent tests verifying that a teacher has mastered a subject area, end up being meaningless. Tests of broad subject matter are not the solution either, given that it is possible to pass current state tests having failed two or more sections of these tests.

**Teacher candidates need to be able to ‘test out’ of coursework requirements.**

Many elementary teacher candidates have acquired the knowledge needed to teach elementary grades in their high school coursework and other experiences. Someone who has earned a score of 3 or higher on an Advanced Placement (AP) exam in American history does not need to take a general survey course in college but should be eligible to take an American history course with a more focused topic. States need to have some process for allowing teacher candidates to test out of survey requirements.

A legitimate test-out option would require individual subject matter tests, or at least minimum sub-scores on a general test. Good policy would also accept equivalent scores from AP and SAT II tests.

**Mere alignment with student learning standards is not sufficient.**

Another growing trend in state policy is to require teacher preparation programs to align their instruction with the state’s student learning standards. In many states, this alignment exercise is the only factor in deciding the content that will be delivered to elementary teacher candidates. Alignment of teacher preparation with student learning standards is an important first step, but it is by no means the last step. For example, a program should prepare teachers in more than just the content that the state expects of its fourth graders. The next critical step, moving past alignment, is to decide the broader set of knowledge a teacher needs to have to be able to effectively teach fourth grade. The teacher’s perspective must be both broader and deeper than what he or she will actually teach.

▲ [BACK to Area 1: Goal B.](#)

## **AREA 1: GOAL C**

### Secondary Teacher Preparation

#### **Rationale**

**Approved programs should require high school teacher candidates to earn a subject area major in their intended teaching area.**

In addition to the common-sense notion that teachers ought to know the subjects they teach, research suggests that subject matter preparation is especially crucial for high school math and science teachers.

**Approved programs should prepare middle school teacher candidates to be qualified to teach two subject areas.**

Since No Child Left Behind requires most aspiring middle school teachers to possess a major or pass a test in each teaching field, this provision would appear to largely preclude them from teaching more than one subject. However, middle school teacher candidates could instead earn two subject-area minors, gaining sufficient knowledge to pass state licensing tests and be highly qualified in both subjects. This policy would give schools much more flexibility in staffing, especially since teachers seem to show little interest in taking tests to earn highly qualified teaching status in another subject once they are in the classroom. There is little evidence from the research that middle school teachers with a major will be more effective than middle school teachers with a minor; and in fact most middle schools do not require this credential of teachers.

**Subject area coursework should be taught by arts and sciences faculty.**

Most states do not explicitly state that subject matter coursework should be taught by subject matter experts, that is, faculty from the university’s college of arts and sciences. While an education professor who specializes in science education, for example, is well suited to teach effective methodologies in science instruction, a professor of science should provide foundation work in the subject.

States cannot leave these decisions entirely in the hands of teacher preparation programs because it can run counter to their financial interest to send teacher candidates outside of the program to complete coursework.

▲ [BACK to Area 1: Goal C.](#)

## **AREA 1: GOAL D**

### Veteran Teachers Path to HQT

#### **Rationale**

**NCLB’s “HOUSSE” route is problematic.**

The HOUSSE route, available as a route for teachers hired before 2002 to achieve highly qualified teacher status, was designed to verify their content knowledge.

Many states, however, adopted HOUSSE plans that relied heavily on old certification and evaluation systems that were lacking in subject-area focus. Other states crafted elaborate plans that were inadequate for objectively verifying content knowledge. These plans often involved giving teachers

credit for certain professional activities that bore little or no connection to their command of content knowledge—professional development seminars, service activities, curriculum design and mentoring, for example—and in doing so, provided loopholes for unqualified teachers to attain highly qualified status. In most cases, states' HOUSSE policies have done little to verify that veteran teachers possess the requisite subject matter knowledge for delivering effective instruction.

**HOUSSE plans need to be phased out.**

In response to the ineffective use of HOUSSE as a means for verifying content mastery, the federal government has been working with states to phase out this first set of HOUSSE plans.

In May 2006 the U.S. Department of Education asked states to provide plans for requiring all teachers hired prior to the 2005-2006 school year to complete the HOUSSE process. This directive was made under the reasoning that most “not new” teachers have already had ample time to activate the HOUSSE option, and that the process should be brought to a close.

The Department also stipulated that HOUSSE should be discontinued as an option for any teacher hired after the start of the 2005-2006 school year, with the following exceptions: rural secondary teachers who are teaching multiple subjects and are already highly qualified in one subject area; special education teachers teaching multiple subjects who are already highly qualified in one of the core areas specified in the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act 2004; and teachers from other countries teaching in the U.S. on a temporary basis.

The Department of Education was correct in advising states to discontinue the use of HOUSSE for most teachers; the option does not offer a viable path to proving content proficiency for most teachers. States should both limit the use of HOUSSE for veteran teachers by the close of the 2007 school year, and implement a new HOUSSE system available only to the teacher areas specified here.

**▲ BACK to Area 1: Goal D.**

## AREA 1: GOAL E

### Standardizing Credentials

#### Rationale

**Different definitions of a major and minor pose a burden on teachers.**

There are still considerable disparities between states' interpretations of No Child Left Behind's requirement that teachers must earn a major. Indeed, some states do not define these academic benchmarks at all. The unfortunate consequence of these interstate disparities is that teachers may have to take additional coursework to meet one state's definition of a major if the state in which they trained had a different definition. In order to move towards a system of national portability of licenses and endorsements, states need to adopt a standard definition of both a major and a minor.

**The job of the state is to set the minimum standard, not the optimum.**

Some states require teachers to complete more than the equivalent of a standard major in subject matter coursework in order to qualify for a license. States should primarily be concerned with setting the minimum standards for entry into the profession and not impose coursework requirements that go beyond this standard. There is no body of research that shows teachers are more effective for taking additional subject matter courses beyond what a major requires. What little research exists indicates that there is a ceiling effect for the value of coursework beyond a certain level. Also, when states require more than a standard major, they may make it more difficult for individuals to complete alternate routes to licensure.

**Multi-subject majors may be an exception.**

When a major is required that includes study of multiple disciplines, the 30-credit hour standard may not be appropriate. Elementary teachers, for example, may need to take considerably more than 30 credit hours in coursework (see Goal 1-B) to be broadly educated in all of the core subject areas. The program of study recommended in Goal 1-B for elementary teachers would require at least 42 credit hours of study.

**▲ BACK to Area 1: Goal E.**

## AREA 2: GOAL A

### Defining Professional Knowledge

#### Rationale

##### Standards need to be grounded in science and proven practices.

The state can work to avoid standards that offer little more than emotion-laden beliefs or ideologies by supporting standards with references. By including citations to specific research-based texts, the state can ensure that all entry-level teachers are utilizing the best and most current research. Citing specific research will also enable the state to create more effective testing and will guarantee that new teachers have this required knowledge before entering the classroom. This type of standardization is critical in guiding teacher preparation programs and ensuring that entry-level teachers have the same foundational knowledge. In light of the pace of current research, adding greater detail to these references can also help states recognize how quickly material may become outdated, while also facilitating communication across states about best practices.

##### Standards need to address expectations for the novice teacher.

Many states' teaching standards are generic in tone and are written for all teachers, regardless of their experience. In addition, assessing whether or not a teacher has met many of these standards would require an opportunity to extensively observe the teacher in action, which makes them inappropriate for the purposes of a state licensing decision. For state teaching standards to be of any practical use in assessing new teachers, they must be written specifically for the new teacher, with no presumption of experience.

##### Teacher dispositions are hard to assess.

Many states' standards articulate not only the professional knowledge and skills that teachers should have but also their "dispositions" (e.g., demonstrates a caring attitude, works collaboratively, respects diversity). While having a good disposition for teaching is important, it is not feasible for the state to assess a teacher's personal attributes. What the state articulates in its standards should be testable; dispositions are at best only observable, and it is difficult to do so reliably. Furthermore, some teachers may be quite effective while not necessarily meeting an ideal vision of what constitutes a good teacher.

#### Standards need to be specific to be useful.

Many states' standards are based on the Interstate New Teacher Assessment and Support Consortium (INTASC) Principles (<http://www.cessso.org/content/pdfs/corestrd.pdf>), which are not nearly specific enough to offer meaningful guidance to preparation programs and teacher candidates, much less form the basis of a rigorous pedagogy test. INTASC is clear about the fact that its standards are meant to offer no more than a starting point, but many states go no further. In an August 2006 update, INTASC explained that its standards are only "model" standards and intended to be a resource that all states can use to develop their own specific standards. The need for development of clear, specific standards is also highlighted by the National Council for Accreditation of Teacher Education (NCATE). NCATE's standards explain that teacher candidates should be able to "reflect a thorough understanding of pedagogical content knowledge delineated in professional, state, and institutional standards" (NCATE Standard 1, page 15). The acknowledgment by these two organizations, to which many states defer on such matters, highlights the importance of specific state standards. It is the responsibility of the state to articulate a body of standards that applies to all teachers and that can guide the setting of institutional standards. NCATE can only act as a monitor of compliance. Without the state fulfilling this critical role, the NCATE accreditation process is significantly weakened, and, more importantly, there can be no guarantee that new teachers will enter the classroom with the same foundational knowledge.

#### A good test puts teeth in standards.

In order to ensure that the state is only licensing teachers that meet its expectations, all standards must be testable. There is no point in the state specifying standards that cannot be assessed in a practical and cost-effective manner. Examples of knowledge that can be tested include the basic elements of good instruction, how to communicate effectively with children, how to use class time efficiently, effective questioning techniques, establishing smooth classroom routines, the importance of feedback, engaging parents, the best methods for teaching reading (as well as other subject areas), appropriate use of technology, knowledge of testing, and the fundamentals of dealing with individual learning challenges.

Too many tests used by states to measure new teachers' professional knowledge utterly fail to do so, either because the passing score is set so low that anyone—even those who have not had professional preparation—can pass or because

it is possible to discern the “right” answer on an item simply by the way it is written.

▲ [BACK to Area 2: Goal A.](#)

### Food for Thought

#### Backing up standards with research.

All skills that are applied in the classroom begin as knowledge of theory, research and best practices. Optimally, new teachers have integrated this body of knowledge before gaining access to classroom teaching. It is the responsibility of the state to make sure that teaching candidates are equipped with the highest-quality, most current and clearest information on teaching practices, classroom management and research-based information on childhood development and learning. To meet this goal, state standards must do more than consist of ambiguities and platitudes.

While it is up to teacher preparation programs to design the curriculum for specific classes, it is up to the state to ensure that teaching candidates at all programs receive a common core of foundational knowledge. State standards must standardize this body of knowledge. As such, it is incumbent upon these state standards to cite core research in the form of texts and scholarly articles that should be taught in all programs in the state. In light of the pace of current research about areas such as brain development and learning disabilities, states have a great deal to gain by bringing together panels to develop research citations for use in state standards. Ensuring that the best research is being utilized is the responsibility of the state. Instead, some states have standards documents that have been untouched for more than 10 years.

While backing up standards with good research and texts would certainly represent a new approach, it has the potential to dramatically improve the quality of teaching candidates and make the state more responsive and agile in dealing with important issues in education. This type of specificity will allow standards to better address the core knowledge found to help raise student achievement, as well as target specific weaknesses that may have been found in entry-level teachers. States will be able to go back once a target area has been identified and check the research that is being used, adding more or replacing what has been found to be outdated or ineffective.

This type of standardization would also allow states to be more responsive to new issues in education. Issues of school safety and in-school violence, for example, might

have required little reference in state standards decades ago. States could better equip new teachers and ensure that these issues are being addressed by all programs through research citations. These references would not only provide uniformity for teaching candidates, but could also act as an important reference for veteran teachers. State standards have the potential to gain greater practical relevance and vitality through research citations.

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### AREA 2: GOAL B

#### Meaningful Licenses

##### Rationale

###### **The title of “Teacher” should signify an accomplishment.**

While states clearly need a regulatory basis for filling classroom positions with a small number of people who do not hold full teaching credentials, many of the regulations used to do this put the instructional needs of children at risk, year after year. For example, schools can make liberal use of provisional certificates or waivers provided by the state if they fill classroom positions with persons who may have completed a teacher preparation program but who have not yet passed their state licensing tests. These allowances may be made for up to three years in some states. The unfortunate consequence is that students’ needs are neglected in an effort to extend personal consideration to adults who are unable to meet minimal state standards.

While some flexibility is necessary because licensing tests are not always administered with the frequency that is needed, the availability of provisional certificates and waivers year after year signals that even the state does not put much stock in its licensing standards or what they represent. States accordingly need to ensure that any person given full charge of children is required to pass the relevant licensing tests in their first year of teaching. Licensing tests are an important minimum benchmark in the profession, and states that allow teachers to postpone passing these tests for too long are abandoning one of the basic responsibilities of licensure.

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### Food for Thought

#### **Distinguishing teachers who have not passed licensing tests from fully certified teachers.**

The state may want to consider labeling these individuals interns, long-term substitutes or instructors, or using some

other title to distinguish them from fully certified teachers. This mirrors the practice of higher education, which delineates a person's credentials and the milestones they have achieved in the title conferred by college or university.

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## AREA 2: GOAL C

### Interstate Portability

#### Rationale

**Using transcript analysis to judge teacher competency provides little value.**

In an attempt to ensure that teachers have the appropriate professional and subject matter knowledge base when granting certification, states often review a teacher's college transcript, no matter how many years ago a bachelor's degree may have been earned. A state certification specialist reviews the college transcript, looking for course titles that appear to match existing state requirements. If the right matches are not found, this analysis may then serve as a basis for requiring teachers to complete additional coursework before being granted full standard licensure. This practice even holds true for experienced teachers who are trying to transfer from another state, regardless of how experienced or successful a teacher they are. The application of these often complex state rules results in unnecessary obstacles to hiring talented and experienced teachers. There is little evidence that the process of reviewing a person's undergraduate coursework improves the quality of the teaching force or ensures that teachers have adequate knowledge.

#### Testing requirements should be upheld, not waived.

While many states impose burdensome coursework requirements, they often fail to impose minimum standards on licensure tests. Instead, they offer waivers to veteran teachers transferring from other states, thereby failing to impose minimal standards of professional and subject matter knowledge. In upholding licensure standards for out-of-state teachers, the state should be flexible in its processes but vigilant in its verification of adequate knowledge. Too many states currently have policies and practices that reverse these priorities, focusing diligently on comparison of transcripts to state documents while demonstrating little oversight of teachers' knowledge. If states can verify that a teacher has taught successfully and possesses the required subject matter and professional knowledge, their only concern should be ensuring that transferring teachers are familiar with the state's student learning standards.

#### **Signing on to the NASDTEC Interstate Contract at least signals a willingness to consider portability.**

Many states have signed onto the Interstate Agreement sponsored by the National Association of State Directors of Teacher Education and Certification (NASDTEC), an organization concerned with facilitating licensure reciprocity. However, the NASDTEC Interstate Agreement does not guarantee full transfer of certification and endorsement. Although most states have signed the agreement, many of them still require veteran teachers to complete additional coursework in order to attain full licensure. Nevertheless, by signing this agreement, states are taking a good first step toward achieving nationwide portability.

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## Food for Thought

**Consider the recent case of a music teacher from Indiana.**

Consider the recent case of a music teacher from Indiana, Neil Manzenberger, who had 30 years of teaching experience but was only granted a provisional license by the state of Arizona. The reason for the provisional status is that Manzenberger had not taken the course "Methods of Teaching Elementary Music." He had, however, taught that class at the college level to teacher candidates. Veteran teachers deserve greater flexibility and deserve to be treated as professionals who can prove their competency without facing new obstacles. At the time of this writing, the state of Arizona—which purportedly offers reciprocity to licensed Indiana teachers by way of the NASDTEC Interstate Agreement—had not granted Manzenberger full certification and does not plan to do so until he has completed the course. An unusual case? Not at all. There are similar stories to be found in nearly every state.

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## AREA 2: GOAL D

### Teacher Prep in Reading Instruction

#### Rationale

**Reading instruction should address five essential components.**

Teaching children to read is the most important task that teachers undertake. While elementary teachers need to be well-versed in the five components of reading (phonemic awareness, phonics, fluency, vocabulary, and comprehension), even secondary teachers need some knowledge of this

process, particularly if they work in high-poverty schools.

Many states' policies still do not reflect the strong research consensus in reading instruction that has emerged over the last few decades and that is a key provision of the No Child Left Behind Act. Many teacher preparation programs, still caught up in the reading wars, resist teaching scientifically based reading instruction. States need to make clear to programs the importance of delivering adequate training in reading instruction.

**Most current reading tests do not offer assurance of teacher knowledge.**

Many states, like California, have pedagogy tests that include items on reading instruction. However, since reading instruction is only addressed in one small part of most of these tests, it is often not necessary to know the science of reading in order to pass. States need to make sure that it is not possible for a teacher candidate to pass a test that purportedly covers reading instruction without knowing the critical material.

▲ [BACK to Area 2: Goal D.](#)

**AREA 2: GOAL E**  
Distinguishing Promising Teachers

**Rationale**

**A teacher's own academic ability matters.**

Teacher quality research indicates that there is a positive correlation between a teacher's verbal ability, as measured by his or her performance on college aptitude tests, and the ability of a teacher to raise student achievement. In fact, based on 50 years of cumulative research, this is the most important of any measurable teacher attributes, including certification status, experience, and advanced degrees. Many educators still operate under an assumption that a teacher's own academic ability is not of particular significance and place no value on hiring teachers with stronger academic backgrounds. States can help to raise understanding of the importance of a teacher's own ability by conferring beginning teacher licenses that distinguish academic performance of the candidates, helping school principals and district administrators to also recognize the importance of this significant attribute.

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**AREA 3: GOAL A**

Evaluating Teacher Effectiveness

**Rationale**

**Teachers should be judged primarily by their impact on students.**

While there are many factors to be considered when a teacher is formally evaluated, nothing is more important than effectiveness in the classroom. Unfortunately, many evaluation instruments used by districts, some of which are mandated by states, are structured so that teachers can earn a satisfactory rating without any evidence that they are sufficiently advancing student learning in the classroom. It is often enough that they just appear to be trying, not necessarily succeeding.

Many evaluation instruments give as much weight, or more, to factors that do not bear any direct correlation with student performance, such as taking professional development courses, assuming extra duties like sponsoring a club or mentoring, and getting along well with colleagues. Some instruments express a hesitation to hold teachers accountable for student progress. Teacher evaluation instruments should include a combination of factors and *combine both human judgment and objective measures of student learning.*

A teacher evaluation instrument that focuses on student learning could include the following components:

**I. OBSERVATION**

1. Ratings should be based on multiple observations by multiple persons, usually the principal and senior faculty, within the same year to produce a more accurate rating than is possible with a single observation. Teacher observers should be trained to use a valid and reliable observation protocol (meaning that the protocol has been tested to ensure that the results are trustworthy and useful). They should assign degrees of proficiency to observed behaviors.
2. The primary observation component should be the quality of instruction, as measured by: student time on task; student grasp or mastery of the lesson objective; and efficient use of class time.
3. Other factors often considered in the course of an observation can provide useful information:
  - Questioning techniques and other methods for engaging class;
  - Differentiation of instruction;

- Continual student checks for understanding throughout lesson;
- Appropriate lesson structure and pacing;
- Appropriate grouping structures;
- Reinforcement of student effort; and
- Classroom management and use of effective classroom routines.

Some other elements commonly found on many instruments, such as “makes appropriate and effective use of technology,” or “ties lesson into previous and future learning experiences,” may seem important to document but can be difficult to reliably do so in an observation. Too many elements often end up distracting the observer from focusing on answering one central question: “Are students learning?”

## II. OBJECTIVE MEASURES OF STUDENT LEARNING

Apart from the observation, the evaluation instrument should provide evidence of work performance. Many districts use portfolios, which create a lot of work for the teacher and may be unreliable indicators of effectiveness. Good and less-cumbersome alternatives exist to the standard portfolio:

- The value that a teacher adds, as measured by standardized test scores (see Goal 3-B);
- Periodic standardized diagnostic assessments;
- Benchmark assessments that show student growth;
- Artifacts of student work connected to specific student learning standards that are randomly selected for review by the principal or senior faculty, scored using rubrics and descriptors;
- Examples of typical assignments, assessed for their quality and rigor; and
- Periodic checks on progress with the curriculum (e.g., progress on textbook) coupled with evidence of student mastery of the curriculum from quizzes, tests, and exams.

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## Food for Thought

### Identifying good ways to assess teacher effectiveness.

NCTQ asked practicing teachers and school administrators to identify ways that different types of teachers might be held accountable for student learning. They suggested evaluating teachers according to some combination of the following measures, emphasizing the need to use multiple criteria to ensure effective and fair evaluation:

## Kindergarten

- Beginning, middle, and end-of-year diagnostic tests of literacy and math skills, administered by both the teacher and someone outside the classroom;
- Unannounced walkthroughs on a monthly basis in which principals can review recent student work;
- Lesson plans, especially for newer teachers;
- Observations (formal and informal—at least two formal);
- Tracking student mastery on a checklist of standards (struggling, basic, proficient, advanced).

## Third Grade

- Quarterly assessments of literacy and math standards;
- Value-added gains on standardized tests, averaged over three-year period;
- Lesson plans, especially for newer teachers;
- Observations (formal and informal—at least two formal);
- Grade book rubric (weekly grade per subject);
- Progress on textbook/curriculum, checked against student mastery.

## Secondary Foreign Language

- Teacher is at ease and conversant in the language;
- Quarterly written, listening and speaking assessment measuring mastery of student learning standards;
- Lesson plans, especially for newer teachers;
- Observations (formal and informal—at least two formal);
- End-of-year exam grades, if standardized across teachers;
- Student grades on SAT II and AP foreign language tests;
- Progress on textbook/curriculum, checked against student mastery;
- Year-end student evaluations of the teacher.

## High School Mathematics

- Observations (formal and informal—at least two formal);
- End-of-year exam grades, if standardized across departmental teachers;
- Student grades on SAT II and AP exams if subject is Calculus or Statistics;
- Progress on textbook/curriculum, checked against student mastery with sampling of rigorous quizzes and tests;
- Year-end student evaluations of the teacher.

**High School Art** (similar structure for P.E., music, etc.)

- Diagnostic test at beginning and end of school year (based on state standards; e.g., color, line, form);
- Lesson plans collected on a regular basis, biweekly. Daily/weekly lesson plans must always be present and accessible in classroom (portfolio and lesson plans must correspond);
- Observations (formal and informal—at least two formal);
- Student grades on AP art exam;
- Student participation and performance in local art contests;
- Year-end student evaluations of the teacher;
- Art-related participation in school events, such as set design, posters.

*A word of caution about lesson plans: While they impose important structure and organization for the less-experienced teacher, they do not always mirror what is actually happening in the classroom. Ineffective teachers are often capable of producing good lesson plans; the real question is, can they deliver the lesson successfully? More experienced teachers, on the other hand, often do not need to make formal lesson plans in order to teach well.*

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## AREA 3: GOAL B

### Using Value-Added

#### Rationale

##### What is value-added analysis?

Value-added models are an important new development in measuring student achievement and school effectiveness. Value-added models measure the learning gains made by individual students, controlling for students' previous knowledge. They can also control for students' background characteristics. In the area of teacher quality, value-added models offer a fairer, and potentially more meaningful, way to evaluate a teacher's effectiveness than previous methods used by schools.

For example, it used to be that a school might have only known that its fifth-grade teacher, Mrs. Jones, consistently had students who did not score on grade level on standardized assessments of reading. Once the school had access to value-added analysis, it learned that Mrs. Jones' students were reading on a third-grade level when they entered her class, and that they were above a fourth-grade performance level at the end of the school year. While not yet reach-

ing appropriate grade level, Mrs. Jones' students had made more than a year's progress in her class. Because of value-added data, the school was able to see that Mrs. Jones is an effective teacher.

#### There are a number of responsible uses for value-added analysis.

##### ASSESSING INDIVIDUAL TEACHERS

With three years of good data, value-added analysis can successfully identify the strongest and weakest teachers. It is not as useful at distinguishing differences among teachers in the middle range of performance. (See Goal 3-A).

##### SCHOOL PERFORMANCE

Value-added analysis can accurately assess the learning gains and losses made within a single school, with less risk of measurement error. The U.S. Department of Education is now working with states to pilot something akin to value-added analysis, known as "student growth" models for determining schools' Adequate Yearly Progress (AYP). Student growth models are not as effective as value-added models at controlling for other factors besides the quality of the teacher. Yet, these models are still valuable for providing a measure of academic improvement for the school overall, leaving open their potential use for determining school-wide bonuses. A good value-added model is a subset of a student growth model; it is able to more precisely separate out nonschool effects on learning, making it possible to better distinguish the impact of an individual teacher.

##### APPLICABILITY TO ALL TEACHERS

Many critics of value-added models dismiss them because they can only be used for teachers in tested subjects. While some subjects do not lend themselves to a value-added model, more types of teachers may be eligible than may be immediately obvious. For example, student reading scores are certainly affected by the quality of social studies and science instruction, not just instruction in language arts. Reading comprehension is directly connected to student learning of broad subject matter, including history, geography, and science.

##### HIGH SCHOOL

A value-added model is theoretically most useful at the high school level, because high school teachers are typically assigned many more students, making results more reliable within a given year. Data from an elementary class size of 20 to 30 students can produce relatively unstable results for a single year. A high school teacher, however,

will be assigned on average 120 students, yielding a much more stable, reliable indicator of actual teacher performance. Use at the high school level would require states adopting reliable pre- and post-tests in core subject areas.

#### PILOTS

States can directly and indirectly encourage districts to implement value-added analysis. By piloting value-added analysis in districts or schools, the state can encourage the development of this valuable tool for eventual statewide use. Other programs, such as state-sponsored pay-for-performance programs that base bonuses, in part, on teachers' ability to produce student academic gains, can also encourage experimentation with value-added analysis.

#### EVALUATING TEACHER PREPARATION PROGRAMS

Another innovative use for value-added technology is its inclusion in the evaluation of teacher preparation programs. Value-added analysis that can measure the effectiveness of program graduates can provide valuable information that will hold poor teacher preparation programs accountable, as well as identifying strong programs that can be models for best practices.

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#### Food for Thought

##### **Building state longitudinal data systems: laying the foundation for value-added methodology.**

To create a value-added model, a state has to have certain capacities for collecting data, including at least three elements:

1. Every student in the state must be assigned a unique identifier, so that students can be tracked from year to year no matter where they are in school;
2. Student identifiers must be linked to the state's assessment system, in order to follow the progress of a student's learning over time; and
3. Every teacher in the state must be assigned a unique identifier, so that student test records can be matched with individual teachers.

The Data Quality Campaign (DQC; [www.dataqualitycampaign.org](http://www.dataqualitycampaign.org)) has surveyed states for the last four years about the capacity of their data systems. According to the 2006-2007 DQC survey, 15 states report having these three elements in place. They are: Arkansas, Delaware, Florida, Georgia,

Hawaii, Kentucky, Louisiana, New Mexico, Ohio, Rhode Island, South Carolina, Tennessee, Utah, West Virginia and Wyoming.

Although states' data system might have these three elements, they could still be a long way off from actually implementing value-added methodology.

When considering these survey results, there are some caveats to keep in mind:

- The list of states with the three critical elements reflects only the states' data system capacity, not actual action on the parts of states toward putting value-added methodology in place.
- The DQC survey results are based on the states' reporting of their own capacity. Survey results have not been validated by anyone outside of the states, which means these responses should be considered cautiously. States might overstate their data systems' capacity.
- These three data elements are necessary but by no means sufficient for value-added analysis.
- In some cases, for example, the states might have each of the elements in place, but lack an infrastructure that allows the different components to "talk" with one another and generate the actual value-added analysis.
- There are also limitations based on state assessment systems, specifically regarding score comparability from one year's test to another.

Still, despite these limitations, encouraging states to develop these capacities is a minimum requirement for developing longitudinal student and teacher data systems.

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#### AREA 3: GOAL C

##### **Teacher Evaluation**

###### **Rationale**

##### **Annual evaluations are standard practice in most professional jobs.**

Most states do not mandate annual evaluations of teachers who have reached permanent or tenured status. The lack of regular evaluations is unique to the teaching profession and does little to advance the notion that teachers are professionals.

Further, teacher evaluations are too often treated as mere formalities, rather than as important tools for rewarding good teachers, helping average teachers improve, and hold-

ing weak teachers accountable for poor performance. State policy should reflect the importance of evaluations so that teachers and principals alike take their consequences seriously. Accordingly, states should consider articulating policies wherein two negative evaluations within five years are sufficient for justifying dismissal of a teacher.

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## AREA 3: GOAL D Compensation Reform

### Rationale

**Reform can be accomplished within the context of local control.**

Teacher pay is, and should be, largely a local issue. Districts should not face state-imposed regulatory obstacles to paying their teachers the way they see fit; different communities have different resources, needs, and priorities. States should remove any obstacles to districts' autonomy in deciding the terms for teacher compensation packages.

The state can ensure that all teachers are treated fairly by imposing a minimum starting salary for all teachers. However, a state-imposed *salary schedule* that can lock in pay increases (or the requirement of a uniform salary schedule) deprives districts of the ability to be flexible and responsive to supply and demand problems that they face.

**There is an important difference between setting the minimum teacher salary in a state and setting a salary schedule.**

What is the difference between establishing a minimum starting salary and a salary schedule? Maine, for example, set a minimum starting salary of \$27,000 for its teachers in 2006-07. No district is allowed to pay less. In contrast, Alabama, like many states, has established a salary schedule that lays out what the minimum salary has to be at every level. A teacher who has been teaching four years and has a master's degree must not be paid less than \$42,675. A teacher who has been teaching four years and does not have a master's degree may not be paid less than \$37,109. While most districts exceed the state minimum, setting the salary schedule forces districts to adhere to a compensation system that is primarily based upon experience and degree status, even when they would like to have other options.

▲ [BACK to Area 3: Goal D.](#)

## AREA 3: GOAL E

### Tenure

### Rationale

**Tenure should be a meaningful milestone in a teacher's career.**

Because of the high turnover rate during the first five years of teaching in many school districts, the decision to give teachers tenure (or permanent status) is often made automatically, with little thought or deliberation put into the decision. Shifting the probationary period to five years could help to improve the quality of the evaluation process, since fewer teachers would be under consideration.

State policy should reflect the fact that "initial" certification is intended to be temporary and probationary, and that tenure is intended to be a significant reward for teachers who have consistently shown commitment and effectiveness. Tenure and advanced certification are not rights implied by the receipt of an initial teaching certificate, yet tenure is often granted automatically, without even a hearing to review a teacher's performance. No other profession, including higher education, offers practitioners this benefit after only a few years of working in the field.

▲ [BACK to Area 3: Goal E.](#)

## AREA 4: GOAL A Entry Into Preparation Programs

### Rationale

**The best time for assessing basic skills is at program entry.**

Basic skills tests were not intended to be licensing tests, but rather to be used at the point of admission into a teacher preparation program. They generally assess middle school-level skills and should be used by the state as a minimal screening mechanism to ensure that teacher preparation programs are not admitting individuals who are not prepared to do college-level work. Admitting aspiring teachers who have not passed these tests may result in programs devoting too much time to remediation.

**Screening candidates at program entry protects the public's investment.**

Teacher preparation programs that do not screen candidates, particularly programs at public institutions that are heavily subsidized by states, end up investing considerable taxpayer dollars in the preparation of individuals who may

not be able to successfully complete a program and pass the licensing tests required to become a teacher. It would be far better to require individuals who want to teach to complete remediation as a *condition* of program entry, avoiding an unsuccessful (but significant) investment of public tax dollars.

▲ [BACK to Area 4: Goal A.](#)

### Food for Thought

#### Using testing to expand and restrict the supply of teachers.

Currently, states with basic skills test requirements set a single passing score without regard to the subject areas that aspiring teachers intend to teach. States could consider using these tests to better manage the flow of aspiring teachers into certain subject areas and grade levels. Other countries, such as France, engage in this practice, resetting passing scores on an annual basis. For example, raising the passing scores needed to enter an elementary education program might help to reduce the number of eligible elementary education teachers in excess supply in many states. A neighboring state in need of elementary teachers might keep its scores low to attract candidates. Such policies would also reduce the significant expense that states incur by subsidizing teacher preparation programs that produce teachers in already overcrowded teaching fields.

States might also vary passing scores based on the expected difficulty of the subject area. For example, the state may want to allow a lower passing score on a basic skills test for aspiring early childhood teachers than for aspiring high school physics teachers.

▲ [BACK to Area 4: Goal A.](#)

### AREA 4: GOAL B

#### Program Accountability

##### Rationale

###### States need to hold programs accountable for the quality of their graduates.

The state should look at a number of factors when approving teacher preparation programs. The quality of both the subject matter preparation (see Goals 1-B and 1-C) and the professional sequence (see Goal 4-D) are crucial. However, in addition to consideration of program content, the measures recommended by NCTQ can provide the state and the public with meaningful, readily understandable indicators of how well programs are doing in what is most important: preparing teachers to be successful in the classroom.

Average scores on basic skills tests of individuals admitted to programs can help the state learn, “Are programs appropriately screening applicants?” Pass-rate data on licensing tests can help answer the question, “Are programs delivering essential academic and professional knowledge?” Classroom performance data and evaluation ratings can help the state find out, “Are programs producing effective classroom teachers?”

Collecting effective pass-rate data on state licensing tests is especially important. Most states are currently failing to meet the spirit of Title II, Section 207 of the Higher Education Act, which requires states to collect pass-rate data and hold approved programs accountable for poor performance. The insufficient response to this law was, until recently, a consequence of its language mandating collection of the licensing test pass rates of program completers. Many teacher preparation programs responded to this language by requiring a passing score on licensing tests in order to complete the program, thus ensuring pass rates of nearly 100 percent. These data consequently gave little meaningful insight into the quality of a program. Only 22 out of more than 1,300 teacher preparation programs nationwide were identified as “low performing” in the 2003-04 academic year.

▲ [BACK to Area 4: Goal B.](#)

### AREA 4: GOAL C

#### Program Approval and Accreditation

##### Rationale

###### Accreditation is concerned with inputs, how a program achieves quality; state approval of programs should be about outputs.

The recent growth in the popularity of national accreditation has led some states to adopt policies that blur the line between the public process of state program approval and the private process of national accreditation. The factors considered for accreditation are broader and more formative in nature than the factors that should be considered by the state when approving programs. The state’s primary interest is—or should be—narrower, more sharply focused on only those aspects of teacher preparation that directly relate to teacher effectiveness and those measures that can be quantified (see Goals 4-B and 4-D). While both the state and the accrediting body share the same ultimate goal—quality teachers—the questions that each asks differ.

Furthermore, although there may be a growing consensus as to what teachers should know and be able to do—a

consensus that could eventually strengthen the accreditation movement—no single accrediting body has yet to demonstrate its inherent advantage or superiority over any other. There is no solid evidence that nationally accredited teacher preparation programs produce better teachers than unaccredited programs.

Accordingly, states may choose to endorse the standards of national accrediting bodies, but these bodies' standards should not be seen as adequate substitutes for state program approval standards. Unfortunately, some states have allowed programs to substitute national accreditation for state program approval. A few states have gone further and required that all teacher preparation programs at public universities attain NCATE accreditation. A few more have required that all in-state programs, public and private, attain national accreditation. These policies are inappropriate, since they require that public funds and institutional resources be spent meeting the standards of a private organization that has yet to be recognized as the undisputed guarantor of minimum quality in its field.

▲ [BACK to Area 4: Goal C.](#)

## AREA 4: GOAL D

### Controlling Coursework Creep

#### Rationale

##### Most states have programs that demand excessive requirements.

NCTQ's research shows that there are teacher preparation programs in the majority of states where teacher candidates are required to complete 60 or more credit hours of professional coursework. We found programs in still more states where candidates are required to complete 50 to 59 credit hours of professional coursework. These are excessive requirements that leave little room for electives, and often leave insufficient room for adequate subject matter preparation. Though there is no research data to confirm this, it seems likely that such excessive requirements are likely to discourage talented individuals from pursuing teacher preparation—and public school teaching.

##### States should only mandate courses or set standards that relate to student achievement, giving programs discretion to determine remaining sequence.

When deciding what courses the state wants to require of aspiring teachers, there is not necessarily a one-to-one correspondence between the goals of teacher preparation programs (or the organizations that accredit them) and the in-

terests of the state. Generally speaking, programs' concerns are broader and more formative in nature in defining what future teachers should learn and be able to do. The state's interest is—or should be—narrower, focusing only on that portion of teacher candidates' preparation that will make them more effective once they reach the classroom.

For example, virtually all teacher preparation programs require that aspiring teachers take "foundations" coursework. This includes courses like "Social Foundations," "Philosophy of Education," and "Introduction to American Education." Programs would probably assert that such coursework is integral to the formation of the future teacher. Yet the connection of foundations coursework to teacher effectiveness and student learning has not been established and is not likely to be—at least not easily.

Foundations coursework is not the only curricular area with a loose connection (at best) to teacher effectiveness. Another area seeks to develop teacher candidates' understanding of the teaching profession. These courses, which are common in higher-ranking education schools and are often intellectually engaging, deal with social issues related to schools, alternative structures of schools, the politics of education, and other related issues.

Ultimately, though, little about the intentions or nature of these various types of courses suggests that teachers will be more effective in the classroom for having taken them. That's not to say that they are unimportant, or that programs should be prevented from requiring them. By the same token, however, whether or not they are required should lie outside the realm of state concern, and the state should not deny approval to programs that elect not to require them.

What about the professional sequence is the concern of the state? When approving a program, what evidence should the state seek that would indicate that a program is making every effort to produce effective teachers? The following is not a comprehensive list nor even a suggested list of topics, but it highlights the sort of topics that would enhance teacher effectiveness. Some topics might need more than a single course; other topics might be covered as part of a broader course:

- Important principles generated from the field of cognitive psychology. Many child development and learning theory classes do not teach these established principles well, in spite of course titles to the contrary.
- Types of instruction, lesson planning, classroom management strategies and routines.
- Fundamentals of school law and professional ethics,

particularly with regard to special education.

- The science of reading instruction, including diagnosis and remediation.
- Strategies for teaching children whose native language is not English.
- Recognition and diagnosis of learning disabilities.
- The social and cultural roots of the achievement gap; learning challenges from poverty.
- Methods for teaching subject matter, particularly mathematics.
- Testing in an era of school accountability.

The line between coursework that is formative and coursework that is likely to lead to teacher effectiveness can be blurry. But recognizing that the goals of institutions and those of states are not always the same can help the state to focus on its primary responsibility: producing teachers who can improve student learning.

**States need to establish a cycle for reviewing their coursework requirements.**

States that require all teacher candidates to complete a specific set of professional courses need to review these requirements on an ongoing basis. Many states rarely assess their required coursework sequences and end up only doing so when there is a move to add a new course to the list. States that schedule a comprehensive review of the entire professional sequence on a regular cycle, once every five years for instance, are more apt to weigh the benefit and value that each requirement offers, eliminating requirements that are no longer relevant and ensuring that the state focuses on teacher effectiveness.

**States need to monitor programs' total professional coursework requirements.**

Although some states specify a reasonable amount of minimum professional coursework that new teachers are required to complete, teacher preparation programs often require far more than the required minimum amount. Requiring that teachers complete a minimum amount of coursework does nothing to ensure that approved programs will limit themselves to the state requirements (nor is it necessarily the case that programs should be limited to these requirements).

As described above, there are programs in most states that require teacher candidates to take two to three times the equivalent of a college major. This problem of “coursework creep” is often even worse in the majority of states that have adopted a “standards-based” approach. This requires

teacher candidates to complete a program that meets certain curricular standards, rather than a state-mandated set of coursework requirements. The standards of national accrediting bodies, like minimum coursework requirements, do little to ensure that programs will make it a priority to deliver professional preparation in an efficient manner.

The problem of excessive coursework requirements is rarely, if ever, one that can be laid at the feet of arts and sciences faculty. Education departments decide the professional sequence of coursework that teacher candidates must complete in order to graduate and be recommended for licensure. The problem of coursework creep is often worst in the area of elementary teacher preparation, in which candidates first complete the equivalent of a major in broad professional coursework (e.g., Foundations and Sociology of Education)—and then complete what should be a subject matter major in the education department. At universities around the country, elementary teacher candidates complete coursework taught by education faculty in “Teaching Elementary Math,” “Teaching Elementary Music,” and so on, instead of courses in math and music taught by faculty with scholarly credentials in those fields. The problem of insufficient subject matter preparation (see Goal 1-B) is thus inseparable from the problem of excessive professional coursework. If elementary teacher candidates completed subject matter coursework while preparing to teach subject matter, much of the problem of coursework creep would disappear.

Coursework creep is far less of a problem in secondary teacher preparation than in elementary preparation. Secondary teacher candidates are now required by almost every state to complete a subject matter major or the equivalent, rather than a major in “math education” or “science education.” This much-needed focus on subject matter preparation has placed a check on the amount of professional coursework that programs can require of secondary teacher candidates.

Teacher preparation programs have an inherent financial disincentive to cut down on the number of professional courses that they require of candidates. As such, it is likely that nothing short of state policy can address this problem.

▲ [BACK to Area 4: Goal D.](#)

### Food for Thought

#### An alternative to limiting the amount of professional coursework.

If states do not want to place limits on the amount of professional coursework that approved programs may require, they could also address this issue by requiring programs with excessive coursework requirements to show measurably superior results over programs with fewer requirements.

[\*\*▲ BACK to Area 4: Goal D.\*\*](#)

### AREA 5: GOAL A

#### Genuine Alternatives

##### Rationale

#### The program must provide practical, meaningful preparation that is sensitive to the stress level of the new teacher.

Too many states have policies requiring alternate route programs to “back-load” large amounts of traditional education coursework, thereby preventing the emergence of real alternatives to traditional preparation. This issue is especially important given the large proportion of alternate route teachers who complete this coursework while teaching. Alternate route teachers often have to deal with the stresses of beginning to teach while also completing required coursework in the evenings and on weekends. States need to be careful to only require participants to meet standards or complete coursework that is practical and immediately helpful to a new teacher.

[\*\*▲ BACK to Area 5: Goal A.\*\*](#)

### Food for Thought

#### State-run programs are not optimal.

Because states do not actually hire and place teachers, states are generally not the optimal choice to actually run alternate route programs. The proper role of the state may be to articulate good alternate route policies and hold districts and programs accountable for meeting them. Since school districts are in the best position to know what kinds of teachers they need to recruit and what kind of curricular training will best serve those teachers, school districts are the optimal providers. States that do run their own alternate route programs should match teacher candidates with spe-

cific job openings before candidates begin their pre-service training, at least mitigating the primary weakness of existing state-run programs.

[\*\*▲ BACK to Area 5: Goal A.\*\*](#)

### AREA 5: GOAL B

#### Limiting Alternate Routes to Teachers with Strong Credentials

##### Rationale

#### Alternate route teachers need the leg up of a strong academic background.

The intent of alternate-route programs has been to provide a route for persons who already have strong subject matter knowledge to enter the profession, allowing them to focus quickly on gaining the professional skills needed for the classroom. This motivation is based on the fact that academic caliber has been shown to be a strong predictor of classroom success. Programs that admit candidates with both a weak grasp of subject matter and a lack of professional knowledge can put the new teacher in an impossible position, much more likely to experience failure, and perpetuate high attrition rates.

#### What should be the state's minimum academic standard?

Assessing a teacher candidate's college GPA and/or aptitude scores can provide useful and reliable measures of academic caliber, provided that the state does not set the floor too low. A 2.5 minimum grade point average (GPA) of half Bs and half Cs is a popular choice of many alternate route programs but may set the standard somewhat too low. It is about the same as what most teacher prep programs require of traditional candidates. Some programs address this problem by looking for at least a 2.75 in the last 60 hours of college, as indicative of a growing seriousness of purpose on the part of the candidate. GPA measures are especially useful for assessing elementary teacher qualifications since elementary teaching demands a broader body of knowledge that can be harder to define in terms of specific tests or coursework.

#### Multiple ways for assessing competency are needed for the nontraditional candidate.

Rigid coursework requirements can dissuade talented, qualified individuals who lack precisely the “right” courses from pursuing a career in teaching. States can maintain high standards by allowing individuals to instead prove their

subject matter knowledge by means of appropriate tests. For instance, there should be no coursework obstacles to an engineer who wishes to teach physics, as long as he or she can prove sufficient knowledge of physics on a test. A good test with a sufficiently high passing score is certainly as telling, if not more so, than the courses listed on a transcript.

A testing exemption would also allow alternate routes to recruit college graduates with strong liberal arts backgrounds to work as elementary teachers, even if their transcripts do not exactly meet state requirements.

[\*\*▲ BACK to Area 5: Goal B.\*\*](#)

## **AREA 5: GOAL C**

### **Program Accountability**

#### **Rationale**

**Alternate route programs should show they consistently produce effective teachers.**

All data that is collected on alternate route programs should focus on the central question of whether or not they produce effective teachers. Although there are many components involved in a good alternate route program, the output of productive teachers is the only true indicator of success. The indicators recommended by NCTQ capture a comprehensive vision of teacher effectiveness.

Alternate route programs need to be held as accountable for their results as traditional programs. While the training and time associated with alternate route programs differs substantially from that of traditional programs, the outputs of student learning and teacher effectiveness should be held to an identical standard.

[\*\*▲ BACK to Area 5: Goal C.\*\*](#)

## **AREA 5: GOAL D**

### **Interstate Portability**

#### **Rationale**

**States can embrace portability without lowering standards.**

It is understandable that states are wary of accepting alternate route teachers from other states, since programs vary widely in quality. However, the same wide variety in quality can be found in traditional programs. To decide if a teacher from out of state meets their standards, states often conduct transcript reviews as the only safeguard on quality, oddly enough ignoring the record and performance of the teacher in the classroom. Satisfactory evaluations, evidence of a

valid license, and meeting licensing test requirements offer more meaningful indicators of good standing.

#### **Using transcript analysis to judge teacher competency provides little value.**

In an attempt to ensure that teachers have the appropriate professional and subject matter knowledge base when granting certification, states often review a teacher's college transcript, no matter how many years ago a bachelor's degree may have been earned. A state certification specialist reviews the college transcript, looking for course titles that appear to match existing state requirements. If the right matches are not found, this analysis may then serve as a basis for requiring teachers to complete additional coursework before being granted full standard licensure. This practice even holds true for experienced teachers who are trying to transfer from another state, regardless of how experienced or successful a teacher he or she is. The application of these often complex state rules results in unnecessary obstacles to hiring talented and experienced teachers, with little evidence that the process of reviewing a person's undergraduate coursework improves the quality of the teaching force or ensures teachers have adequate knowledge.

[\*\*▲ BACK to Area 5: Goal D.\*\*](#)

#### **Food for Thought**

##### **Barring the National Teacher of the Year.**

Consider the example of Jason Kamras, 2005 National Teacher of the Year. With his unconventional background (he did not major in the subject he teaches), Kamras would likely be barred from teaching in many states. Another example is that of Jeffords Huyck, a Latin teacher with a doctorate in classics who had taught for 22 years when the state of California decided that he needed to meet standard certification requirements. It is unlikely that Huyck, who never completed traditional teacher preparation, would be allowed to teach in most states. States should ensure that unusually talented individuals—especially those with years of teaching experience—are allowed to teach. One way to build this option into policy is to offer teaching licenses to individuals with outstanding accomplishments. States could recognize extraordinary work experience as well as above-average academic qualifications.

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**AREA 6: GOAL A****Coursework Creep in Special Education****Rationale****Standards need to define the professional knowledge teachers must have to work with students with disabilities.**

State standards for the preparation of special education teachers should clearly define what the state expects teachers to know and be able to do. A comprehensive set of standards should address the specific knowledge teachers need in each of four key areas essential to the education of students with disabilities: the legal and historical foundations of special education, instruction, behavior management and assessment. Specificity is key; when the state is not clear about which practices and methods it expects teachers to know, preparation programs are free to decide in which strategies they will train teacher candidates. Leaving these choices to preparation programs is particularly problematic in special education, because the 2004 authorization of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act specifically requires the use of research-based practices in special education.

In order to ensure that the state is only licensing teachers that meet its expectations, all standards must be testable. Standards that require an opportunity to observe teachers in action are inappropriate for the purposes of teacher preparation and licensing. Furthermore, many states' teaching standards are generic in tone and are written for all teachers, regardless of their experience. For state teaching standards to be of any practical use in assessing new teachers, they must be written specifically for the new teacher, with no presumption of experience.

**Overly prescriptive teacher preparation programs may be exacerbating state teacher shortages in special education.**

The pervasive shortage of special education teachers in the U.S. has many causes; however, the large amount of professional education coursework required of prospective special education teachers is a likely contributor to this ongoing problem.

While more extensive requirements may be appropriate for teachers preparing to work with students with severe disabilities, some states require teachers to complete excessive amounts of professional coursework in order to attain any licensure in special education. State requirements aside, many programs require excessive amounts of coursework

of their own volition. Teacher preparation programs have a financial disincentive to deliver coursework efficiently, so it is up to states to monitor programs and ensure that they offer streamlined courses of study. In addition, No Child Left Behind and the recent reauthorization of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act have placed unprecedented emphasis on special education teachers' subject matter preparation (see Goals 6-B and 6-C), and efficient program design is imperative for special education teachers to receive the subject matter training they need.

**The state needs to establish a review cycle for its own coursework requirements and/or teaching standards.**

States that require all teacher candidates to complete a specific set of professional courses need to review these requirements on an ongoing basis. Many states rarely assess their required coursework sequences and end up only doing so when there is a move to add a new course to the list. States that schedule a comprehensive review of the entire professional sequence on a regular cycle, once every five years for instance, are more apt to weigh the benefit and value that each requirement offers, eliminating requirements that are no longer relevant and ensuring that the state focuses on teacher effectiveness.

**The state should monitor the number of courses, mandated or not.**

Although some states specify a reasonable amount of minimum professional coursework that new teachers are required to complete, teacher preparation programs often require far more than the required minimum amount. Requiring that teachers complete a minimum amount of coursework does nothing to ensure that approved programs will limit themselves to the state requirements (nor is it necessarily the case that programs should be limited to these requirements).

There are programs in most states that require teacher candidates to take two to three times the equivalent of a college major. This problem of "coursework creep" is often even worse in the majority of states that have adopted a "standards-based" approach. This requires teacher candidates to complete a program that meets certain curricular standards, rather than a state-mandated set of coursework requirements. The standards of national accrediting bodies, like minimum coursework requirements, do little to ensure that programs will make it a priority to meet state standards in an efficient manner.

The problem of excessive coursework requirements is rarely, if ever, one that can be laid at the feet of arts and sciences faculty. Education departments decide the professional sequence of coursework that teacher candidates must complete in order to graduate and be recommended for licensure. The problem of coursework creep is often worst in the area of elementary teacher preparation, in which candidates first complete the equivalent of a major in broad professional coursework (e.g., Foundations and Sociology of Education)—and then complete what should be a subject matter major in the education department. At universities around the country, elementary teacher candidates complete coursework taught by education faculty in “Teaching Elementary Math,” “Teaching Elementary Music,” and so on, instead of courses in math and music taught by faculty with scholarly credentials in those fields. The problem of insufficient subject matter preparation (see Goal 1-B) is thus inseparable from the problem of excessive professional coursework. If elementary teacher candidates completed subject matter coursework while preparing to teach subject matter, much of the problem of coursework creep would disappear.

▲ [BACK to Area 6: Goal A.](#)

### Food for Thought

#### Responding to the requirements of IDEA.

The reauthorization of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) includes new requirements for identification and instruction of students with disabilities. To meet these new legal requirements special education teachers need to have knowledge of scientifically based reading instruction, strategies for early intervening services and response to intervention for identifying students with learning disabilities. Unless state standards have been updated since IDEA 2004 was signed into law in 2006 there is no assurance that teacher training programs address these critical areas. Teacher training programs could be held accountable to changes in federal law by adding to state standards a provision that course content must be aligned with current federal regulations.

▲ [BACK to Area 6: Goal A.](#)

## AREA 6: GOAL B

### Elementary Special Education Teachers

#### Rationale

**All teachers, including special education teachers, teach content, and therefore need relevant coursework.**

Elementary special education teacher candidates should complete roughly the same core of liberal arts coursework as regular elementary teacher candidates. They will need this same knowledge in the classroom. (See Goal 1-B for further discussion of this issue.) Moreover, from a practical perspective, it is incumbent on teacher preparation programs to produce special education teachers who are highly qualified in the areas they are going to teach.

#### ONE POSSIBLE MODEL

- 3 credit hours of children’s literature;
- 3 credit hours of composition and grammar;
- 6 credit hours of general science (biology, chemistry, physics, earth science);
- 6 credit hours of mathematics, covering foundational topics and geometry, not higher level math courses like calculus;
- 3 credit hours of U.S. history;
- 3 credit hours of ancient history;
- 3 credit hours of world geography;
- 3 credit hours of music appreciation; and
- 3 credit hours of art history.

**Test-out options: there is no sense in making teachers take coursework when they have already mastered the material.**

Some elementary teacher candidates have acquired the knowledge needed to teach elementary grades in their high school coursework and other experiences. There is no need for someone who has passed an Advanced Placement (AP) exam in U.S. History to be required to take a survey course in that subject during college. Nevertheless, to ensure that all teachers, not just some, are broadly educated, states need to provide a vehicle that allows candidates to test out of college coursework requirements.

The current myriad of state licensing tests, including the general testing requirement in No Child Left Behind teacher quality provisions, only provides for a general subject matter test of all elementary teacher candidates. This

test allows candidates who may be weak in one, two, and even three subject areas to still pass. The tests generally have such low minimum scores that someone can miss up to 50 to 75 percent of the questions and still pass. A legitimate “test-out” option requires individual subject matter tests, or at least minimum subscores on a general test. Good policy would also accept equivalent scores from AP and SAT II tests.

▲ [BACK to Area 6: Goal B.](#)

## AREA 6: GOAL C

### Secondary Special Education Teachers

#### Rationale

**Conflicting language in IDEA and NCLB has led to much confusion.**

No Child Left Behind (NCLB) and the 2004 reauthorization of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act (IDEA) present conflicting expectations for the subject matter preparation of new secondary special education teachers. Although IDEA 2004, which was passed after NCLB, lays out greater flexibility and is more realistic than what NCLB suggests, it may not adequately address teachers’ subject matter knowledge. States can provide some middle ground, while meeting the requirements of both laws.

Under IDEA, states can award “highly qualified teacher” status to new secondary special education teachers who:

- Possess a major or have passed a subject matter test in one of three content areas: language arts, mathematics, or science (but without explanation, the law does not include social studies); and
- Complete a single High Objective Uniform State System of Evaluation (HOUSSE) route for multiple subjects in all other subjects that they are likely to teach within their first two years of teaching (see Goal 6-C).

States need to provide more specific guidance on this issue. They should require secondary special education teachers to have broad coursework in multiple subjects and to become highly qualified in two core academic areas. This will make teachers more flexible and thus better able to serve schools and students. States can use a combination of testing and coursework to meet this goal. For an example of how an institution could prepare more flexible teachers, see *Food For Thought*.

**Secondary special education teachers need to graduate highly qualified in two subject areas.**

Given that these teachers will be expected to complete a HOUSSE route in all remaining subject areas during their first two years of teaching, it makes sense for them to complete undergraduate training in two related areas, probably either math and science or English and social studies. That way, the HOUSSE route can focus on related subject areas and candidates can focus on related fields, rather than studying up on English, history, and mathematics, for example, in their first two years of teaching.

▲ [BACK to Area 6: Goal C.](#)

## Food for Thought

**One model for how an institution might prepare special education teacher candidates.**

Here is one model for how an institution might prepare secondary special education teacher candidates to be highly qualified in two subject areas and provide broad preparation in all core academic subjects:

- A minor in **mathematics** with a licensing test in mathematics (15 credits): **meets HQT**;
- A minor in **general science** with a licensing test in science (15 credits): **meets HQT**;
- A survey course in American history (3 credits);
- Two survey courses in world history (including ancient history) (6 credits);
- An American literature class (3 credits);
- A British literature class (3 credits); and
- A world literature class (3 credits).

This scenario would require 45-48 credit hours of academic content coursework. Much of this coursework would also fulfill institutions’ general education requirements.

▲ [BACK to Area 6: Goal C.](#)

## AREA 6: GOAL D

### Special Education Teachers and HQT

#### Rationale

**The needs of special education teachers, new or veteran, are different from most other teachers needing to earn highly qualified status.**

Special education teachers face unique pressures, as they must be competent in both the subject areas they teach and in the strategies for teaching children with a variety of special needs. The 2004 reauthorization of the Individuals with Disabilities Education Act recognized these pressures in its proviso allowing new secondary special education teachers to use states’ HOUSSE routes to become “highly

qualified,” a route normally reserved for veteran teachers.

There are several problems common to most states’ traditional HOUSSE routes that make them inappropriate for new secondary special education teachers. First, most state plans are weak on teacher content preparation even though the Congressional intent of the HOUSSE was to address weak subject matter knowledge. Second, in order for teachers to achieve highly qualified status, states place a lot of value on experience—which, of course, a new teacher does not have (see Goal 1-D). Third, state requirements tend to be inordinately complicated, making it hard on a new teacher to figure out how to navigate the system to earn the required credential.

Providing a HOUSSE option to special education teachers was originally envisioned as a way to streamline the process of achieving highly qualified teacher status for teachers who must instruct in multiple subject areas each day. While it is certainly important that a secondary special education teacher has a basic competency in subject matter ranging from mathematics to world history, it is unreasonable to expect this teacher to hold multiple college degrees or pass four or five different content examinations in order to be deemed highly qualified.

#### **The special education HOUSSE route needs to be clear and meaningful.**

States can help new secondary special education teachers become highly qualified in multiple subjects by encouraging them to pursue professional development and coursework that is focused on state’s student learning standards. Having available adapted subject matter tests would also add some much-needed flexibility.

Structured properly, HOUSSE would offer an efficient means by which a teacher could get a broad overview of a specific area of content knowledge. One clear option would be for a state to identify focused, content-driven university courses that would provide each teacher with a survey of the information necessary to teach in a given subject area. A single world history course could provide a sufficient basis in social studies; a single quantitative reasoning course could give a broad review of mathematical concepts. This class may not provide expertise, but it could provide the proficiency needed for a teacher to obtain highly qualified teacher status in the subject.

▲ [BACK to Area 6: Goal D.](#)

#### **Food for Thought**

##### **An illustration of the problems that a new special education teacher faces.**

To illustrate the problems that a new special education teacher faces when trying to achieve “highly qualified teacher” status, it may be helpful to look at a specific state’s requirement, typical of what most teachers would be asked to do.

In Massachusetts, teachers who want to use the HOUSSE option need to have an approved Individual Professional Development Plan (IPDP) that has a total of 120 PDPs (Professional Development Activities) which are doled out for various professional activities that a teacher might complete. The very terms used here illustrate the jargon-heavy nature of most current HOUSSE processes.

Every PDP earned by a new teacher has to be awarded by a registered provider: the Department of Education, a school district or “educational collaboratives.” Accordingly, these groups are each responsible for creating an “appropriate end-of-course assessment” for any sponsored activity.

And what are these activities? A teacher in question might first attend four 10-hour professional development programs sponsored by the Department of Education, worth 60 PDPs. Since these programs can be in either “content or pedagogy related to the content of the core academic subjects,” they might include “Theme Based Science Units” or “Teaching Geometry Through Art.” Next, the teacher might clock 10 hours of inservice time sponsored by the district, worth 10 PDPs. That might be followed by making a presentation at a professional conference, worth 30 PDPs. Again, there’s no requirement that the activity improve teacher knowledge of subject matter. Finally, the teacher might earn the last 20 PDPs by spending 20 hours involved in the school-based implementation of “an activity for students, parents or teachers that incorporates the learning standards of the curriculum framework.” Confusing? Yes. Meaningful? Most likely not.

After these professional development hours, inservice hours, conference presentations, and school-based activities, the teacher would make sure to submit to his district his completed Individual Professional Development Plan, with documentation of each PDP earned.

Contrast what this Massachusetts teacher had to do with what the state could require. Even just a cursory exploration of college and university schedules for Spring 2007

shows that a teacher could enroll in “World Civilization II” or “U.S. History I” at Bunker Hill Community College; a teacher living on the other side of the state might enroll in these same classes at Berkshire Community College. These courses are offered in the evenings and would give a teacher familiarity with both the process of historical inquiry and an outline of modern history.

In terms of mathematics, arguably the most specialized of the content areas, the University of Massachusetts at Amherst offers “Math 100: Basic Math Skills for the Modern World,” while the University of Massachusetts at Boston offers “Quantitative Reasoning.” Each of these classes is again offered in the evening and would give teachers a broad exposure to basic mathematical concepts.

This current incarnation of HOUSSE bogs teachers down in distracting bureaucratic tasks while doing little to ensure that they receive an overview of basic content knowledge.

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